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The following reports on the status of and prospects for foreign language teaching in the United States are included: (1) "Present Status of Foreign Language Teaching: A Northeast Conference Survey" by Peter A. Eddy; (2) "Toward an Articulated Curriculum" by Robert C. Lafayette; (3) "Competence in a Foreign Language: A Valuable Adjunct Skill in the Eighties?" by Mills F. Edgerton, Jr.; (4) "Educational Technology" by James W. Dodge; (5) "New Approaches to Assessment of Language Learning" by Helen L. Jorstad; and (6) "The American Language Association: Toward New Strength, Visibility, and Effectiveness as a Profession" by David P. Benseler. (JB)

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NORTHEAST CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

OUR PROFESSION: PRESENT STATUS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Contents

1980 Board of Directors 2
Preface 9
Present Status of Foreign Language Teaching: A Northeast Conference Survey
Peter A. Eddy, ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics
Introduction 13
Scope 13
Questionnaire Development 13
Designing the Sample and Conducting the Survey 15
Enrollment Trends in Schools and Colleges 18
Secondary School Foreign Language Enrollments 18
Higher Education Foreign Language Enrollments 21
The Foreign Language Requirement 23
Elementary School Foreign Language 24
Characteristics of Language Teaching Personnel in Secondary School and in Higher Education 25
Personal Characteristics 25
Professional Background 27
Foreign Language Instructor Morale 30
Recent Professional Development 33
Membership in Professional Organizations 36
Current Working Situation 38
Teaching Environment 38
Individual Teacher Responsibilities 40
Extramural Funding for Special Projects 42
Current Teaching Practices, Curricular Offerings, Use of Resources, and Promotional Practices 43
Teaching Practices 44
Curricular Offerings 45
Language Testing Practices 46
Use of Educational Media 48
Promotional and other Practices 50
Summary and Conclusion 52
Appendix A: 1980 Northeast Conference Present Status Questionnaire, Form SF 56
Appendix B: 1980 Northeast Conference Present Status Questionnaire, Form HEF 58

Toward an Articulated Curriculum
Robert C. Lafayette, Indiana University

Introduction 61
Outside Factors Affecting Articulation of Curriculum 61
Decreasing School Population 61
Inflation 62
Back to Basics 62
Global Education 64
Language-Related Factors Affecting Articulation of Curriculum 64
Notional Syllabus 65
Testing 65
Methodology 66
Textbooks 66
Toward an Articulated Curriculum 67
Internal Articulation 68
Sequential Articulation 69
One School 69
Several Schools 70
School and University 71
Beyond School 71
External Articulation 72
Looking to the Future 73
A Somewhat Pessimistic Scenario 73
A Somewhat Optimistic Scenario 75
Conclusion 76

Competence in a Foreign Language: A Valuable Adjunct Skill in the Eighties?
Mills F. Edgerton, Jr., Bucknell University

Introduction 79
Sources 79
The Present Situation in this Country 80
Foreign Languages in Government and Business Today 81
Competence in Foreign Languages: An Adjunct Skill 82
Importance of Competence 84
Education *Today* for Careers in International Business 86
Foreign Languages in Graduate Programs in International Business 86
Appropriateness of American Undergraduate Education Today for Careers in International Business 86
Language Training as Preparation for Assignment Abroad 86
Current Attitudes 86
Interdisciplinary Programs 86
Some Efforts to Effect Change 87
International Business Diplomacy 87
Likely Changes in the Eighties 89
Attitudes Toward Language and Culture and their Consequences 89
Consequences for the Teaching of Foreign Language in American Schools and Colleges 92
Afterward 97

Educational Technology
James W. Dodge, Middlebury College
Introduction 99
Technological Developments 99
Systems 100
Problems 100
Change 101
Social Change 102
Economic Change 103
The Educational Frontier 104
Instructional Television (ITV) 105
Video Recordings 106
Digital Devices 107
Text Systems 110
Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) and Computer Managed Instruction (CMI) 111
Author Languages 111
Prompts 112
Types of Computers 114
Personal Computers 114
General Purpose Computers 116
Beyond the Frontier: An Inconclusive Ending 118
References 119

New Approaches to Assessment of Language Learning
Helen L. Jorstad, University of Minnesota
Present Status of Assessment 121
Scenario 1: Ms. Jones 121
Future Scenario Based on Today's Knowledge 123
Fact 1: Objectives and Test Congruence 124
Fact 2: How to Prepare Items 130
Fact 3: Standardized Tests 131
Fact 4: Hardware 131
Fact 5: Statistical Procedures 132
Fact 6: Language Learning 132
Fact 7: Attitudes 133
Emerging Issues: 134
Issue 1: Assessment Expertise 134
Issue 2: Technology 134
Technological Expertise 134
Software Development 134
Issue 3: National Professional Effort Needed 135
Performance Level Identification 135
Test Development and Standardization 135
Issue 4: New Developments 136
Issue 5: Global Education 136
Issue 6: Politics of Change 137
Issue 7: Self-Evaluation 137
Scenario 2: Ms. Banning 138

8

The American Language Association:
Toward New Strength, Visibility, and Effectiveness as a Profession
David P. Benseler, Ohio State University
Introduction 143
Inadequacy of Present Professional Structure 144
The Proposed American Language Association 152
Recommendations for Action 152

Preface

Two primary considerations were involved in the selection of "Our Profession: Present Status and Future Directions" as the working theme for the 1980 Northeast Conference. First was the chronological, United States census-year significance of the 1980 date, which lent both timeliness and weight to the concept of conducting a similar survey-based examination of the current status of our own language teaching profession at the beginning of the new decade. Second was the prospective impact of the final report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, scheduled for completion in the fall of 1979 and anticipated to contain a number of important recommendations on desirable future directions for foreign language teaching programs on a nationwide basis.

In keeping with these considerations and the associated Conference theme, it was decided that all Conference activities — including keynote presentations, workshop sessions, and the printed *Reports* — would insofar as possible address one of two major topics: (1) 'where we are' as a profession with respect to a variety of salient aspects of our language teaching activities; and (2) what future directions or thoughtful modifications of existing directions might be responsibly and justifiably proposed by well-qualified members of our profession when asked to take a 'realistically blue-sky' approach to areas in which they have particular background knowledge, insight, and competence.

To embody these two topics within the Conference *Reports*, a two-section format was planned. The first section was to report and discuss the results of a detailed present status survey, prepared and analyzed by a single author with the consultative assistance of a small planning and advisory group. The second section was to consist of a number of somewhat shorter position papers, also by single authors, which would present these authors' reasoned views on and suggestions for future directions that should be taken by the profession in the areas under discussion.

It is a great pleasure to be able to outline here the resulting content of the 1980 Northeast Conference *Reports* — a volume which owes its existence to the diligent and unstinted efforts of each of the individual authors, the Editor, Thomas H. Geno, and the Conference Secretary-Treasurer, James W. Dodge. To each of these individuals I am both professionally and personally indebted.

In the Present Status section, Peter A. Eddy presents and discusses the results of a comprehensive survey of the professional backgrounds, present working situation, cur-

rent teaching practices, and other aspects of the instructional roles of both secondary and postsecondary language teachers at institutions which make up the Northeast Conference. Results of the survey — while identifying some areas of needed improvement — also include some rather encouraging findings which suggest that the present status of the language teaching field, at least with respect to Northeast Conference schools, is by no means as bleak as has been commonly assumed.

In the Future Directions section, five individual authors discuss potential developmental activities for the eighties and beyond in a variety of areas. Robert C. Lafayette analyzes a number of factors that may be expected to influence the articulation of foreign language programs. He then presents both pessimistic and optimistic future scenarios for foreign language curricula in the United States, with the suggestion that our own actions as a profession over the near-term future will in large part determine which of these situations may come to exist.

Mills F. Edgerton, Jr., analyzes the probable value of foreign language competence as an adjunct skill in a number of employment situations, both domestically and internationally. Although worthwhile job situations for persons whose specialization is only in languages (for example, translators) are relatively few in number and available to only the most highly qualified individuals, job applicants who combine training in a non-language subject matter area with a good functional command of a foreign language may have significant employment advantages over those not having foreign language competence. Implications of this situation for curriculum design and proficiency tests are also addressed.

In his discussion of the opportunities and potential problems associated with the use of various types of educational technology in foreign language teaching, James W. Dodge presents an overview of available technologies, including state-of-the-art work in microelectronics and computer assisted instruction, as well as the more traditional media. A common theme throughout his discussion is that teachers or others considering the future use of a particular technology must be closely aware of all of the attributes of that technology and must be prepared to carry out the 'human' steps required to fully integrate the selected technology with the intended instructional activities and goals.

Helen L. Jorstad examines possible future directions in foreign language testing from the perspective of what is already known about good test development and test-use practices. She suggests that, working from these bases and at the same time addressing several emerging issues in language testing, it should be possible within the coming decade to accomplish, on a routine basis, the many useful assessment and feedback activities that she describes in a '1990 scenario' of highly integrated classroom testing and instructional activities.

In the final report of the Future Directions section, David P. Benseler proposes the establishment of a single professional organization within the foreign language teaching field that would assimilate all of the currently existing regional, state, and national organizations for foreign language teachers. Advantages of such an approach are seen to include the avoidance of duplicated effort (as, for example, in journal publication); the economies of scale made possible by membership in a single larger organization rather than a multiplicity of smaller organizations; and a much stronger, unified voice as a profession, leading to both increased public awareness of the role and

significance of foreign language education and a greater potential for governmental or philanthropic support of major developmental projects in the language teaching field.

In closing these introductory remarks, I hope to speak for all of those who have been involved in the 1980 Conference — not only in the preparation of these *Reports* but also in the planning and realization of the many other Conference activities — in saying that the true value of the Conference will lie not so much in any immediate enjoyment or benefit derived from the three April days spent together in New York (although these are certainly worthwhile outcomes), but more especially in any longer-term impetus which the Conference may provide toward determining and advancing, as a profession, in those future directions that will be of greatest benefit to the language teaching endeavor in the penultimate decade of the century. These are indeed most exciting and challenging times, and a very bright future is ours if we will only care enough and work enough to bring it about.

John L. D. Clark

ED191304

Peter A. Eddy
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Present Status of Foreign Language Teaching: A Northeast Conference Survey

Introduction

SCOPE

This study is not intended to be a systematic review of the literature of foreign language education, nor is it one person's view of where the profession stands. Rather it is a data-based study which attempts to obtain an overall picture of foreign language teaching today as carried out by Northeast Conference teachers. The Report deals with educational *practice* rather than with educational theory or research. Most of the data presented below come from two survey questionnaires returned by 732 secondary school teachers and 335 college and university professors in September 1979.

It is hoped that this survey, in addition to providing information on the current status of foreign language education, will serve to establish 'base-line' data that may be useful for measuring future trends within our profession. We hope that in the mid-eighties a replication or an adaptation of the survey instrument developed for this study could be used to find out the ways in which our profession has changed over the intervening years.

QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

In order to have the questionnaire reflect more than one person's point of view, several of the most important periodicals in foreign language education were perused for the purpose of identifying those topics to be included. In March 1979, an outline form of the questionnaire was discussed in a meeting of the advisory group for this Report. In June 1979, the Board of Directors of the Northeast Conference discussed the content of the questionnaire at length, providing many useful suggestions and comments. As we developed the questionnaire, it became apparent that the secondary and higher education groups were different enough to warrant developing two parallel yet somewhat different survey instruments; these two forms took the names SF (Secondary Form) and HEF (Higher Education Form). The final drafts of the questionnaires were worked out between the author and 1980 Conference Chairman John L. D. Clark in August 1979. (Questionnaire Forms SF and HEF are reproduced as Appendices A and B.)

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We desired to explore four major areas. Aware of the alarming decline in foreign language enrollments at all levels of American education over the past decade, we wanted to get some indication from our survey respondents about *enrollment trends* in their schools and colleges. We were also interested in discovering how many college and university respondents were teaching in institutions that had a foreign language requirement.

The second major area concerned *characteristics of foreign language teaching personnel.* There is much talk in educational circles these days about 'teacher burnout,' about the gradual aging of the teaching corps in both secondary and higher education, and about the effect that a 'tenured-in' teaching staff might have on the quality of education. In order to gather information about the language teaching profession with respect to these areas of concern, we wanted to find out from our respondents how old they were, how long they had been in the profession, what their educational background was, and the like. In addition, we wanted to find out about their recent professional development, how valuable they thought it had been, and what their preferences were for future professional development. We also wanted to discover the state of foreign language teachers' morale: how secure they felt in their present positions, how satisfied they were with their careers as foreign language teachers, and whether or not they intended to remain in the profession.

Our third major area of concern was the *working situation of today's foreign language teachers,* at all levels. At the secondary level, what languages are being taught in the schools of the respondents, and how much language may students take? Are teachers being forced to conduct classes containing students at two different levels? Are there foreign language resource persons in the buildings or in the districts of our respondents? For both secondary and higher education personnel, what percentage of teaching faculty is part time? Have language teachers sought support outside their departments for innovative practices in language teaching?

Our fourth area of concern was that of *current teaching practices and curriculum content* in foreign language courses at all levels. In the recent past, the journals in foreign language education have contained many articles on the topics of communicative competence, career education, the teaching of foreign culture, and individualized instruction. Is the rank and file of our colleagues implementing ideas presented in the professional literature?

Much attention has been focused of late on the testing of foreign language skills. Are language teachers testing listening comprehension and communicative competence in their students? Are they testing discrete vocabulary items? Are they using dictation as a testing device? Are they using standardized tests?

Another common theme in current foreign language education literature is that of promotional activities to encourage students to enroll and remain in foreign language classes. Are college and secondary teachers sponsoring language camps, language festivals, and other promotional activities to attract students to their classrooms? Are they traveling abroad with groups of students?

A topic frequently discussed by college and university teachers of foreign language is the necessity to impress upon students the fact that on today's job market, foreign language is most useful as an *ancillary skill.* What percentage of our higher education respondents has had some experience with the development of double major programs

or other such collaborative programs on its campuses?

Finally, we included questions related to three topics treated in other Reports in this volume: membership in professional associations, use of educational media, and testing practices.

DESIGNING THE SAMPLE AND CONDUCTING THE SURVEY

As David P. Benseler implies in his writings elsewhere in these *Reports,* the fact that we language teachers do not have a single unified professional organization means there is no place to obtain a comprehensive mailing list of foreign language teachers in this country. Faced with this depressing reality, we decided to sample the mailing list of the Northeast Conference in such a way that the survey would be manageable, yet still representative of the various language groups and educational levels represented within the Conference. This means, of course, that the statements made, based upon our analysis of questionnaire returns, can apply only to the population of language teachers represented by the Northeast Conference mailing list, and not necessarily to the membership of any other professional organization nor to the total population of foreign language teachers in the United States. The Conference mailing list does provide, however, good coverage of the northeastern United States, and includes enough people from other geographic areas to give more than a 'provincial' view of professional characteristics, attitudes, and practices. Almost 75% of the Form SF responses came from northeastern states; for Form HEF, slightly less than 60%.

In deciding how to select our sample of Northeast Conference names to whom to send our questionnaire, we first considered doing a random sample of the mailing list as a whole. We soon realized, however, that we needed to do a *stratified* random sample — one which breaks the larger population into smaller units to assure inclusion of important subgroups — if we wanted to be confident in our results.

We wanted our results to be representative in two dimensions. First, we wanted to be sure that we heard from all educational levels, from junior high school through university. Second, we wanted to be sure that all foreign languages taught by Northeast Conference teachers would be represented in our final tallies.

It became apparent to us early in the sample design process that we would not be able to represent adequately the less-commonly taught languages (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Japanese) in our analyses, for two reasons. The first of these was that the Northeast Conference does not draw a large number of teachers of these languages, so we would not be likely to get a representative sample of these points of view. The second reason, a technical one related to the first, is that the language information for teachers of uncommonly taught languages is not easily retrievable from the Northeast Conference list. We reluctantly abandoned the idea of attempting to include these extremely important languages in our survey, limiting ourselves to the six most commonly-taught languages in the United States: French, German, Italian, Latin (we also included Greek), Russian, and Spanish.

Table 1 shows the design of the sample of the Northeast Conference mailing list by educational level and by language. This table reveals that certain of the categories of this breakdown are quite large, too large in fact for us to send a questionnaire to every member. For instance, there are 2,226 teachers of Spanish in the senior high school

category. In order to obtain a representative and substantial sample from this broad spectrum of language teachers, we elected to sample the largest categories at 15%, mailing a questionnaire to 15 out of 100 teachers in the category, and to sample the small categories at 100%, mailing a questionnaire to every individual. As may be seen in Table 1, we sampled at 15% a total of 8 of our 24 categories: three each in French and Spanish (junior high, senior high, and four-year college and university), and two in German (senior high and four-year college and university).

Table 1: The Northeast Conference Mailing List Sample: breakdown into categories by language taught and by educational level (July 1979).

LEVEL	JUNIOR HIGH	SENIOR HIGH	2-YEAR COLLEGE	4-YEAR COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY	TOTALS
Language					
FRENCH	335*	2293*	66	829*	3523
GERMAN	43	483*	5	324*	855
ITALIAN	11	76	4	49	140
LATIN/GREEK	6	161	0	33	200
RUSSIAN	1	50	2	57	110
SPANISH	291*	2226*	69	848*	3434
TOTALS	897	5289	146	2140	8262

* Indicates those categories sampled at 15%; all other categories are sampled at 100%, i.e., a questionnaire is sent to every name in this category.

Our decision to sample the large categories at 15% was prompted primarily by the notion that a 50% return of the questionnaires would provide us with approximately a 10% overall sample of both the secondary and the higher education populations. More importantly, this level of sampling, given an adequate return, would assure us of a large enough number of cases to be able to generalize the results of our sample survey to the population as a whole: the teachers of the Northeast Conference. The final sample designs for Forms SF and HEF are displayed in Table 2 and Table 3, respectively. Included with the numbers in the original sample are the tabulations of questionnaires returned, and a return rate for each category.

Table 2: Form SF (Secondary) sample, returns, and percent returns, by language taught and by educational level.

LEVEL	JUNIOR HIGH			SENIOR HIGH			TOTALS		
Language	No. in Sample	No. Returns	% Returns	No. in Sample	No. Returns	% Returns	No. in Sample	No. Returns	% Returns
FRENCH	49	24	49.0	364	220	60.4	413	244	59.1
GERMAN	42	26	61.9	79	48	60.8	121	74	61.2
ITALIAN	11	4	36.4	87	41	47.1	98	45	45.9
LATIN/ GREEK	5	2	40.0	173	101	58.4	178	103	57.9
RUSSIAN	1	0	0.0	51	29	56.9	52	29	55.8
SPANISH	46	24	52.2	374	213	57.0	420	237	56.4
TOTALS	154	80	51.9	1128	652	57.8	.1282	732	57.1

Table 3: Form HEF (Higher Education) sample, returns, and percent returns, by language taught and by educational level.

LEVEL	2-YEAR COLLEGE			4-YEAR COLLEGE/ UNIVERSITY			TOTALS		
Language	No. in Sample	No. Returns	% Returns	No. in Sample	No. Returns	% Returns	No. in Sample	No. Returns	% Returns
FRENCH	53	41	77.4	113	56	49.6	166	97	58.4
GERMAN	6	4	66.7	50	36	72.0	56	40	71.4
ITALIAN	3	2	66.7	50	19	38.0	53	21	39.6
LATIN/ GREEK	0	0	0.0	27	18	66.7	27	18	66.7
RUSSIAN	0	0	0.0	60	34	56.7	60	34	66.7
SPANISH	66	43	65.2	132	82	62.1	198	125	63.1
TOTALS	125	90	72.0%	432	245	56.7%	557	335	60.1%

The reader is cautioned not to assume that the results to be discussed below are representative of the national status of foreign language teaching, since our respondents have gone through a self-selection process at two levels. The first of these happens when the language teacher gets himself placed on the Northeast Conference mailing list, either by attending the Conference or by writing to have his name put on the list. Such individuals are likely to be more highly motivated, more professionally aware language teachers than is the norm for the country or for the northeast. The second self-selection process of our respondents is in their choosing to return the questionnaire. One might speculate that the individuals returning the questionnaire are more likely to care more about the profession than are those who did not return it. It could be, though, that this second process is *not* necessarily important at all in distinguishing among relevant characteristics of language teachers; it might merely indicate a certain level of compulsiveness in returning questionnaires generally.

Two mailings were carried out from the Secretary-Treasurer's office in Middlebury, Vermont, using specially formated mailing labels which included information about the prospective respondent's language, level taught, and geographical location. (The random samples of the eight categories to be so sampled had been performed by the computer service which maintains the Conference mailing list.) The initial mailing was timed to arrive very soon after the Labor Day holiday on 3 September 1979. The second mailing was made two weeks later.

Several steps were taken to increase our chances of obtaining a high response rate. (Low response rates are the bane of such survey questionnaires, rendering results subject to the criticism that they do not represent the views of the population: a rate of 40-50% is considered good.) The first step was to design an attractive questionnaire that was uncomplicated to fill out and did not take an inordinate amount of time to complete. The second measure was to enclose a letter from the 1980 Northeast Conference Chairman and the author asking for the respondent's participation in the survey effort and giving a specific date for return of the questionnaire. The third was to send the questionnaires first-class with hand-affixed stamps, and to enclose stamped, self-addressed envelopes. The fourth measure was to send not only a reminder letter, but an additional questionnaire and return mailer as well.

As may be seen by the very high rate of return in Table 2 and Table 3, we may be quite confident that the conclusions we draw based on totals across categories (i.e., statements about "two-year college teachers" or "French instructors at the secondary level") are representative of the Northeast Conference population as a whole. Furthermore, we may be quite confident about the representative nature of many of the categories representing the intersection of a language and a level, e.g., "junior high teachers of German" or "four-year college professors of Russian." There are a few categories, however, where the sample is too small for us to be able to speak with confidence about its representativeness. They are those which contain less than 30 cases: Italian, Latin-Greek, and Russian in junior high (Table 2), and German, Italian,and Russian in two-year colleges (Table 3).

In the computer analysis of the data from the questionnaire, a process called 'weighting' was used, which permits us to generalize our conclusions to the larger population from the sample under study, i.e., the Northeast Conference. The process of weighting data involves taking into account that in some subparts of the total sample we have asked the *whole population* to respond to our questionnaire (e.g., in Table 1 junior high teachers of German, senior high teachers of Italian) whereas in other subparts of the total sample, questionnaires have been sent to only a *part of the whole population* (e.g.,15%, as in Table 1, junior high teachers of French, university teachers of Spanish). In our case, 'weighting' means increasing the value of each response from the starred subcategories in Table 1 to correct for the fact that we had only asked our questions of 15% of their total number, while asking all the members of the non-starred subcategories in Table 1. During analysis, the computer can be programmed to assign automatically these weights to different subsamples that have been sampled at different rates. The results are 'weighted data.' Data that have not been weighted are 'raw data.' In our analysis below, we will be dealing with weighted data, unless specifically mentioned in the text, since we are interested in making statements which are representative not only of the relatively small sample we took, but of the larger population.

A final note about the level of significance of our findings. Perhaps 90% of the crosstabulations done in our analyses were highly significant judging from the chi-square test for statistical significance. While a discussion of *all* significant crosstabulations would have made this Report much too cumbersome, all statements made about crosstabulations are based upon highly significant ($p < 0.0001$) chi-square tests, unless stated otherwise.

Enrollment Trends in Schools and Colleges

SECONDARY SCHOOL FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENTS

The most recent survey results available describing the national picture of secondary school enrollments come from fall 1974, more than a half-decade ago. Table 4 displays 1968, 1970, and 1974 enrollments in the foreign languages of interest to us in this Report and provides also the percentage that these enrollments represent of the total

public secondary school enrollment in the United States. These data document the decline in the number of students studying foreign languages in the country between 1968, when the number of students studying foreign languages in American schools was 4,751,000, and 1974, when the number was 4,038,000, a decline of 15.0%. The percentage of the total student body studying foreign language fell correspondingly, going from an all-time high of 27.1% in 1968 to 19.2% in 1974.

Table 4: Total public secondary school (PSS) enrollments and PSS foreign language enrollments; foreign language as a percent of total PSS.*

Fall 1968, 1970, 1974 (multiply by 1,000)

	Fall 1968		Fall 1970		Fall 1974	
TOTAL ENROLLMENT	17,543		18,407		20,990	
FRENCH	1,686	9.6%	1,563	8.5%	1,254	6.0%
GERMAN	476	2.7	462	2.5	441	2.1
ITALIAN	33	.2	36	.2	52	.2
RUSSIAN	29	.2	23	.1	17	.1
SPANISH	2,113	12.0	2,185	11.9	2,064	9.8
OTHER MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE	21	.1	17	.0	25	.1
LATIN/ ANCIENT GREEK	393 .593	2.2 .0	283 .186	1.5 .0	184 .721	.8 .0
TOTAL MFL	4,358	24.8%	4,287	23.3%	3,853	18.4%
TOTAL FL	4,751	27.1%	4,570	24.8%	4,038	19.2%

*Adapted from the Final Report: *Survey of Foreign Language Enrollment in Public Secondary Schools*, Fall 1974, Modern Language Association [ED 134 047].

Enrollment reports published more recently than 1974 (no national data are available as yet) by various states would lead one to believe that the rapid enrollment decline of the early seventies has slowed, but not necessarily stopped. For instance, in Virginia, during 1974-75, enrollments in French, German, Latin, Russian, and Spanish for grades 8-12 were 109,341 or 26.7% of total enrollments. In 1977-78, enrollments for the same languages were 104,720 or 25.1% of total enrollments. If one adds the figures for English as a Second Language and Introduction to Foreign Languages, both of which have grown appreciably over the time period involved, the decline in percent of total population is reduced by 1%: from 27% in 1974-75 to 26% in 1977-78.[1] In New York State, 36.3% of the public school population in grades 9-12 enrolled in foreign language study during school year 1974-75. In 1977-78, the percentage had dropped to 33.6%.[2] In Indiana, during school year 1967-68, enrollments in foreign language courses were 30.2% of total public school population in grades 9

1. "Foreign Language Enrollments in Virginia, 1977-78," *Bulletin of the Foreign Language Association of Virginia*, 34.2 (Feb. 1979), pp. 73-5.

2. Newsletter of the Bureau of Foreign Language Education, State University of New York, Albany, Sept. 1979, n.p.

through 12. In 1977-78, the figure was 22.2%.[3]

Given the lack of information at the national level about enrollment trends since 1974, we decided to include two questions in form SF concerning enrollment: one to obtain an indication of overall enrollment trends in respondents' schools, and one to get an idea of what present enrollment trends are in the languages taught by Northeast Conference teachers. While the data we gathered with these questions are not as satisfactory as enrollment data would be, they do furnish a general idea of what enrollment trends have been over the past three years.

Table 5 shows secondary respondents' assessments of what the overall total student body enrollment trend at their institution has been for the past three years. One gleans from examining the far right column of this table that total enrollments at institutions within the Northeast Conference constituency are relatively stable or declining only slightly. The other columns reveal that private schools appear to be maintaining their overall enrollment substantially better than public schools. For example, in a time

Table 5: Secondary respondents' estimates of total student body enrollment trend at their schools over the past three years, by institution type.*

	Private Schools Nonsectarian	Private Schools Church-Related	Public Schools	Total Average
Increasing more than 3% per year	10.0%	12.4%	6.8%	8.0%
Increasing more than 1-3% per year	26.9	25.8	16.2	18.7
Staying about the same	61.0	51.0	32.2	37.4
Decreasing 1-3% per year	2.1	4.2	31.9	25.2
Decreasing more than 3% per year	0.0	6.7	12.9	10.7

Table 6: Secondary respondents' estimates of enrollment trends in their major teaching language over the past three years, by institution type.*

	Private Schools Nonsectarian	Private Schools Church-Related	Public Schools	Total Average
Increasing more than 3% per year	8.3%	24.8%	13.5%	14.5%
Increasing more than 1-3% per year	30.9	24.3	25.1	25.4
Staying about the same	52.0	39.0	36.8	38.9
Decreasing 1-3% per year	4.4	10.1	17.3	15.0
Decreasing more than 3% per year	4.4	1.8	7.3	6.3

*Breakdown by institution type is as follows: 9.9% of respondents were from private, nonsectarian schools, 13.7% were from private, church-related schools, and 76.5% were from public schools.

3. Lorraine A. Strasheim, "Foreign Languages in the 'Average' School Situation: Where Are We?" A presentation to the Chicago regional hearing of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, 12 December 1978, p. 2.

when enrollments at 31.9% of public schools respondents' institutions are decreasing, only 2.1% of the Northeast Conference nonsectarian, private school population, and 10.9% of the church-related school population are experiencing enrollment declines.

Table 6, which displays respondents' estimates of enrollment trends in their major teaching languages over the past three years, should give foreign language educators cause for cautious optimism. Our respondents indicate that over the past three years there has been a trend toward increased enrollments in foreign languages: 39.9% of our respondents indicated that enrollments in their major teaching language had risen over the past three years, compared with 21.3% who reported a decline. Enrollment increases of 3% or more per year were reported by 14.5% of the population as a whole, whereas a decline of similar magnitude is reported by only 6.3%. **Enrollments in respondents' major teaching language are reported to be either stable or increasing by 91.2% of the private, nonsectarian school teachers, 88.1% of the church-related school teachers, and 75.4% of the public school teachers.**

By comparing the enrollment trends in foreign language (Table 6) with those for school populations as a whole (Table 5), one notes that for the overall totals, more institutions are experiencing an increase in foreign language enrollments than they are in overall enrollment. Also, fewer institutions are experiencing a decrease in foreign language enrollments than they are in overall enrollment. These data raise the possibility that, among Northeast Conference teachers at least, an increasing percentage of the whole school population is studying foreign language. (We should caution, however, that this is only a *possibility*; our survey collected no data about the size of student bodies involved here, and it could be that the largest student populations happen to be in those institutions reporting no growth or perhaps decline in foreign language enrollments.) It will be most interesting to see whether national enrollment surveys (one is being conducted currently by ACTFL) confirm the foreign language enrollment trend suggested by our present study.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENTS

The decline of foreign language enrollments in higher education over more than a decade has been well documented by surveys performed by the Modern Language Association. Table 7, adapted from MLA statistics, gives an overview of the situation, which has seen enrollments in the five most-taught languages fall from a high of 1,040,284 in 1968 to 819,294 in 1977, a decrease of 21.2%. The proportion of American college students enrolled in these foreign languages (which accounted for over 86.5% of *all* foreign language registrations in 1977) was almost halved over this time period, falling from 15.0% in 1968 to 8.2% in 1977.

Table 7 shows that the decline in overall language enrollments was steepest between 1968 and 1974, with a less precipitous drop occurring between 1974 and 1977. Between 1968 and 1974, a six-year period, the proportions of language enrollments to the total enrollment fell from 15.0% to 9.2%, an average of almost one percent per year. Between 1974 and 1977, a three-year period, the proportion of language enrollment to the total enrollment fell from 9.2% to 8.2%, or one-third of a percent per year.

An exception to this overall leveling off of the decline should not go unnoticed, however. The number of students enrolled in Russian declined from 40,696 in fall

Table 7: Total college enrollments in the five leading modern languages in selected years, and percent of college total enrollment by language (all institutions).*

	Fall 1968		Fall 1970		Fall 1974		Fall 1977	
	Enroll.	% College Total Enroll.	Enroll.	% College Total Enroll.	Enroll.	% College Total Enroll.	Enroll.	% College Total Enroll.
TOTAL COLLEGE ENROLLMENT	6,928,115		7,920,749		9,023,424		9,934,000	
FRENCH	388,096	5.6	359,313	4.5	253,137	2.8	246,115	2.4
GERMAN	216,263	3.1	202,569	2.6	152,139	1.7	135,371	1.4
ITALIAN	30,359	0.4	34,244	0.4	32,996	0.4	33,327	0.3
RUSSIAN	40,696	0.6	36,189	0.5	32,522	0.4	27,784	0.3
SPANISH	364,870	5.3	389,150	4.9	302,151	4.0	376,697	3.8
TOTAL	1,040,284	15.0%	1,021,465	12.9%	832,945	9.2%	819,294	8.2%

*Adapted from the *ADFL Bulletin*, 10: 1 (1978), Table 1 (p. 15) and Table 5 (p. 18).

1968 to 32,522 in fall 1974, a drop of 20.1%, or 3.35% per year. Between fall 1974 and fall 1977, enrollments had dropped from 32,522 to 27,784, a drop of 14.6%, or 4.9% per year. It is evident, then, that Russian language study in this country continues to decline at an alarming rate.

Since no enrollment studies in institutions of higher education had been performed by the MLA since the fall of 1977, and since that study had indicated a decrease in the rate of decline of foreign language enrollments, we decided to include two enrollment-related questions in our survey of Northeast Conference postsecondary institutions in order to obtain an idea of more recent enrollment trends. These questions were iden-

Table 8: Higher education respondents estimates of total student body enrollment trends at their institutions over the past three years, by institution type.*

	2-Year Colleges, %	4-Year Colleges & Universities, %	Total Average, %
Increasing more than 3% per year	12.6	14.2	14.1
Increasing 1-3% per year	28.2	24.9	25.2
Staying about the same	33.3	48.8	47.7
Decreasing 1-3% per year	10.3	9.1	9.2
Decreasing more than 3% per year	14.9	3.0	3.9

Table 9: Higher education respondents' estimates of enrollment trends in their major teaching language over the past three years, by institution type.*

	2-Year Colleges, %	4-Year Colleges & Universities, %	Total Average, %
Increasing more than 3% per year	11.8	18.9	18.4
Increasing 1-3% per year	14.1	26.1	25.2
Staying about the same	47.1	33.3	34.3
Decreasing 1-3% per year	12.9	15.1	14.9
Decreasing more than 3% per year	14.1	6.5	7.1

*Breakdown by institution type: 7.3% from 2-year colleges and 92.7% from 4-year colleges and universities.

tical to the ones asked of the secondary group, discussed above.

Table 8 shows how our respondents described enrollment trends over the past three years at their institutions. Almost half reported that enrollments had been stable, though the proportion was only 33.3% for two-year colleges. About 12% noted that enrollments were decreasing overall, with two-year colleges reporting slightly more than twice that proportion. Approximately 39% of respondents' institutions have been gaining enrollment over the past three years, with 41.3% of two-year colleges and 39.1% of four-year colleges and universities reporting an enrollment gain.

With respect to foreign language enrollment trends, higher education survey totals look quite similar to those obtained for the secondary group (see Table 9). **Over three-quarters of our respondents (77.9%) reported that enrollments in their major teaching language had either stayed the same or increased over the past three years.** While enrollment increases were recorded by about 25% of our two-year respondents, almost 44% of the four-year college and university respondents indicated that enrollments had increased at their institutions. Enrollments appear to be declining in a larger proportion of community colleges (where 27.0% of respondents reported falling enrollments) than they are in four-year colleges and universities (where 21.6% reported falling enrollments).

With respect to foreign language enrollments as a proportion of total enrollments, higher education language teachers do not appear to be in as fortunate a position as those in secondary schools, since for the latter, more schools are experiencing growth in foreign language enrollment than are reporting growth in overall enrollment. For example 25.2% of our two-year respondents indicated an institution-wide decline in enrollment; however, 27.0% reported declines in foreign language enrollment. In four-year colleges and universities, 12.1% of our respondents indicated declining enrollment institution-wide; however, 21.6% of our respondents said that foreign language enrollments had decreased over the past three years. This implies that, although the absolute numbers of language enrollments may be rising, the proportion of language enrollments to overall enrollments at institutions is likely to be falling.

As with the data concerning secondary enrollments discussed above, these results must be interpreted with a great deal of caution and treated as indicative only, for two reasons. First, data are not actual measures of enrollments; they are, rather, reports of *impressions* of enrollment trends in the respondents' major teaching language only. Second, we do not have any information about the relative sizes of student populations in respondents' institutions; it could be (as could be the case with our secondary population) that most of the larger institutions might be in the "increasing more than 3% per year" category, which would make erroneous the inferences drawn above. Given the fact that we employed a stratified random sampling design, however, this is not likely to be the case.

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE REQUIREMENT

There has been much talk over the past one or two years of a resurgence of the language requirement in institutions of higher education. Some feel that the current 'back to basics' trend and the movement away from academic permissiveness in colleges in the late sixties is leading to the readoption of foreign language requirements;

these individuals point to Harvard, Berkeley, and other institutions which have recently re-implemented a language or culture requirement.

The most recent large-scale study of the foreign language requirement in United States baccalaureate-granting institutions was done during academic year 1974-75 by the MLA.[4] That survey reported that some 38.8% of these institutions had no language requirement at all, 7.9% had an *entrance* requirement, and 42.6% had a *degree* requirement.

Recently, in response to requests from colleagues who detected a return to foreign language requirements, the MLA conducted a small sample study to determine whether there was in fact a return to such requirements.[5] None were found; the trend detected by MLA was slightly away from foreign language requirements.

In order to provide a more recent reading on the status of the foreign language requirement, we asked our higher education survey respondents to indicate what, if any, sort of language requirement existed at their institution: **25.5% indicated that there was no foreign language requirement whatsoever at their institution.** Language study is *an option in a distribution requirement system* (e.g., a series of language courses may be taken to fulfill a "communications" requirement) in 24.9% of respondents' schools. This percentage should be slightly higher since several respondents described a variation of this option in the free response option of the question: 26.2% responded that *individual departments* at their college or university have language requirements. Only **six percent of respondents' institutions have a language entrance requirement,** though **25.2% have a graduation requirement.** The "other" (free response) option on the questionnaire was marked by 6.6% of our respondents, over 50% of whom mentioned that certain degrees from their institution (e.g., the B.A.) included a graduation requirement.

Our study corroborates the recent MLA update on the status of the language requirements in United States baccalaureate-granting institutions. In fact, requirements seem to have fallen off since the time of the update survey. In 1974, the MLA found that 7.9% of institutions surveyed had an entrance requirement; in this 1979 Northeast Conference survey, the proportion was 6.0%. In 1974, 42.6% of institutions surveyed by the MLA had a degree requirement; in this 1979 Northeast Conference survey, the figure was 29.8%. **Clearly, then, there is at the moment no greater cause for optimism about the return of the foreign language requirement in colleges and universities across the United States.**

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Responses to our questions concerning FLES (from SF questions 34, 35, 36) indicate that 20.4% of our respondents are working in a school district or private school where there is a FLES program. (In fact, two percent of the junior and senior high school teachers polled indicated that they were also teaching elementary school.) Almost 10% are "not sure" whether there is such a program or not, and almost 70% are working in establishments where there is no FLES program. Teachers from non-

4. Richard I. Brod and Jeffrey H. Meyerson, "The FL Requirement - Report on the 1974-75 Survey," *ADFL Bulletin*, 7, 1 (1975), pp. 43-8.

5. "No Change in Status of Language Requirements," *ADFL Bulletin* 10, 3 (1979), p. 50.

denominational private schools report the highest percentage of FLES programs, 34.7%; church-related personnel report the next highest percentage, 29.2%; public school personnel report the lowest percentage, 16.3%.

Survey respondents report a similar level of activity in bilingual programs: 18.8% of our Form SF sample are currently working with systems or institutions that house a bilingual program, nine percent are "not sure," and 72.1% report that there are no such programs where they work. Bilingual programs are reported by more than twice as many teachers from public schools (20.8%) as are those from non-denominational private schools (8.6%); 15.2% of our sample of church-related, private school, language teachers report bilingual programs.

Immersion programs (those in which English-speaking children are taught subject matter in a foreign language) are much less common than either FLES or bilingual programs. Overall, our responses indicate that there are only 3.6% of such immersion programs in existence. These classes are more likely to be found in private non-denominational schools (4.8% report their presence) and in church-related private schools (5.5% report their presence) than they are to be found in public schools, where 3.2% report their presence.

There is no doubt that foreign language teaching in the elementary schools is not as widespread as it was in the late fifties and very early sixties. However, the survey results just discussed indicate **that there is very probably much more FLES activity in the United States than the recent surveys by Neel[6] and Adcock[7] would lead us to believe** and that the number of American children receiving some foreign language instruction in the elementary grades may well number in the hundreds of thousands. A comprehensive national study of FLES activity has not been undertaken for more than fifteen years; it is long overdue.

Characteristics of Language Teaching Personnel in Secondary Schools and in Higher Education

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Table 10 displays the *age* spread of our respondents, both those in secondary school and those in higher education, in five-year age brackets. Neither group contains a large proportion of respondents under 25 years of age.

The group in higher education tends to be significantly older than the secondary school group, with over fifty percent of the college and university foreign language instructors being 45 years old or older. In fact, had the Spanish subgroup not had a much smaller number of members in the "60 and older" age category than the other

6. Bege B. Neel, "A Survey of Programs in Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools (FLES), and of Legislative Policies and Practices Affecting Language Education," MLA, 1978 (Mimeo).

7. Dwayne Adcock, "Foreign Languages in Elementary and Emerging Adolescent Education," in *An Integrative Approach to Foreign Language Teaching: Choosing Among the Options*, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis, (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1976).

languages, the overall proportion of total college language instructors in that age category would have been closer to 20 percent than the eleven percent which figure in Table 10.

With respect to the *sex* of our various respondent groups, we found some of our common conceptions were reinforced by the data. For instance, in secondary schools, there are more than twice as many female language teachers (68.6%) than there are male language teachers (31.4%). In higher education, however, the proportions are much closer, with males filling 58.2% of higher educational language instructional positions and females holding 41.8%.

There are fewer male teachers of foreign languages in junior high school than there are in senior high school. Only five percent of the males teaching in the secondary school indicated that they taught at the junior high level.

In secondary foreign language instruction, French has the largest proportion of female teachers (73.1%), followed by Spanish (68.5%), Italian (62.8%), and Latin and Greek (60.8%). Secondary school German instruction appears fairly evenly divided between the sexes: 45.5% males and 54.5% females. However, males outnumber females by almost two to one in Russian language teaching at the secondary level.

In higher education, four-year college personnel tend to be more male (59.2%) than female (40.8%), while two-year college personnel are more female (54.7%) than male (45.3%). French and Spanish show similar male and female proportions, with male percentages in the low fifties and female percentages in the high forties. For all the other languages, however, (German, Italian, Latin and Greek, Russian) males outnumber females by approximately three to one.

College and university professors are almost twice as likely to be *native speakers of the foreign language* than are foreign language teachers at the secondary level. Of our secondary respondents, 90.3% speak English natively, and 9.7% are speakers of some other language. These latter are not necessarily teaching their native language, however; in fact, at the secondary level, more than 50% of these individuals are teaching a language other than their native tongue. French, Russian, and Spanish are all taught by teachers 92% of whom are native speakers of English; 41.2% of the Italian teachers classified themselves as native speakers. Although we know that not all

Table 10: Age of respondents to 1980 NEC Present Status Questionnaire, by educational level and by five-year age grouping.

	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
Below 25 years	3.3%	0.6%
25-29 years	13.7	1.4
30-34 years	22.3	6.9
35-39 years	15.0	19.3
40-44 years	14.9	15.7
45-49 years	9.8	17.8
50-54 years	10.4	18.0
55-59 years	6.6	9.2
60 and older	4.0	11.0

Table 11: Highest academic degree received, by educational level.

	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
BA	29.9%	1.5%
MA or MS	59.3	26.8
MAT	7.8	2.0
DA or DML	0.3	3.0
EdD or PhD	2.7	63.6
Other degrees	—	3.1

of these are native speakers of Italian, an important percentage of them is. This is not surprising since ethnic Italians in this country support the teaching of their language. The high percentage of secondary German teachers who are non-native speakers of English surprised us: 21.4%.

As mentioned above, substantial proportions of foreign language teachers in higher education (18.4%) are non-native speakers of English. These instructors are more likely to be teaching their native language than are their counterparts in secondary school; in our sample approximately 60% of them were teaching their native language. The college and university French and German instructors are mostly English-speaking by birth (88.5% and 86.2%, respectively), as are Classics instructors (93.8%). Substantial percentages of non-native speakers of English were found among the ranks of Italian instructors (31.6%), Russian instructors (20.7%), and Spanish instructors (25.1%).

PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND

We asked our survey respondents several questions in three areas relating to their professional background: the highest academic degree received; the subject area in which major work was done; the number of years in foreign language teaching; and, for secondary school respondents, the number of years in teaching any academic subject; the length of time with present employer.

Table 11 shows dramatically what the *academic degree* expectations are for teaching in secondary and higher education in the United States today. Although we gave our secondary respondents the opportunity to indicate a high school diploma as their highest academic degree, not one out of 732 respondents did so: all had obtained at least a B.A. degree. Despite the existence of several excellent M.A.T. programs in the northeast and elsewhere in the country, that degree is held by less than 10% of the foreign language teaching community at the secondary level and two percent at the higher education level. Although an increasing number of secondary school teachers is doing coursework beyond the master's level, a very small percentage of them does finally receive a doctoral degree (3.0%). As is common knowledge in our profession today, aspiring college instructors of foreign language had better have their Ph.D. in hand when seeking employment: 66.6% of college and university foreign language instructors possess a doctoral degree.

At the secondary level, teachers of Italian, Classics, and Russian have a higher percentage of master's degrees than teachers of French, Spanish, and German. Classics teachers are almost twice as likely to have the Ph.D. than the average secondary teacher where only 5% of the classics teachers have the degree. For Russian, the figure is almost four times the average: 10.3% of secondary school Russian teachers have the degree.

A higher proportion of males had higher degrees in virtually all degree types, and private school teachers have a higher proportion of M.A. degrees than do public school teachers.

Most secondary school language teachers appear not to obtain a master's degree before beginning their teaching career: of the teachers with 0 to 2 years experience, only 13.4% have the degree; in the group of teachers with 10 or more years experience, however, 66.5% indicate that they have the degree.

Of two-year college teachers 68.6% have obtained a master's level degree; 10.5% out of that total have received the M.A.T. degree, a higher proportion than either four-year college or secondary teachers. Slightly over 31% of two-year college instructors have a doctoral level degree: for four-year college instructors, the proportion is 67.1%; for university instructors, 85.3%. The Doctor of Arts is found most often in the faculty of four-year colleges: 5.9% of our four-year college respondents indicated that they had the D.A.

Among our higher education respondents, the highest proportion of Ph.D. holders comes from German language instructors (82.2%), Russian instructors (79.4%), and classicists (66.7%). Spanish and French instructors have 60.9% and 55.2%, respectively. The smallest proportion of Ph.D's is held by Italian language instructors (47.4%), who also have the highest proportion of master's level degrees (42.1%). A little over half of our female higher education respondents possess the Ph.D.; for males the figure is over 72%.

Table 12 shows the academic area in which the degrees, referred to in our discussion just above, were taken. Most secondary school teachers took the degree in the major language they teach. In languages such as Russian, there is evidence that declining enrollments have reduced the demand for Russian instruction while causing Russian teachers to diversify: for instance, 35.7% of secondary school Russian teachers in our sample took their last academic degree in French. The same phenomenon appears to be taking place with teachers of Latin and Greek, though to a lesser degree.

Table 12: Academic area of highest degree received, by educational level.

	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
French	36.9%	30.5%
German	6.8	18.1
Italian	0.8	0.9
Latin/Greek	2.4	1.2
Russian	0.7	2.3
Spanish	30.4	32.2
English as a Second Language	1.5	0.1
Other Language	0.8	0.4
Education	13.6	5.6
Linguistics	0.5	4.2
Other Academic Area	5.6	4.4

Table 13: Number of years experience teaching foreign language, by educational level and by year grouping.

	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
0-2 years	2.3%	1.2%
3-5 years	11.3	1.5
6-10 years	23.1	14.2
11 or more years	63.3	83.1

Education is likely to have been the major field of study in the highest degree obtained for more than twice the proportion of secondary teachers (13.6%) as college and university instructors (5.6%). One concludes (since about 90% of our respondents' highest degrees are either master's or doctoral degrees) that language teachers at the higher education level tend to do their advanced work in the language they are teaching, rather than in education, linguistics, or in some other related field.

At the higher education level, slightly under 85% of French, German, and Russian instructors earned their highest degree in the foreign language they currently teach. Over 8% of college instructors currently teaching Spanish received their highest degree in French. This suggests to us that these instructors may have prepared themselves originally to teach French but, as the demand for Spanish instruction has outgrown that for French, they have retrained themselves to teach a more widely taught language.

Our previous discussion (see Table 10) of the age of respondents to our questionnaires is reinforced by what we have learned about *the extent of our respondents' experience* teaching foreign language and number of years working for their current employer. It has been common knowledge in the language teaching profession for many years that teaching positions are difficult to obtain at both the secondary and higher education levels. The few new teachers entering our profession is eloquently documented by the number of respondents to our questionnaires who have from 0 to 2 year's experience: 2.3% of secondary school respondents, 1.2% of higher education respondents. The information in Table 13 leads us to believe that it is even harder to find a job in college language teaching than it is in secondary school language teaching: only 2.7% of our higher education respondents have entered language teaching within the past five years, while for our secondary population, the corresponding percentage is 13.6%.

At the secondary level, a substantial proportion of the teaching population (63.3%) has eleven or more years of experience. Secondary teachers of Italian and German tend to be those with the shortest experience; those in Russian and Latin and Greek have the most experience.

A high proportion of college and university instructors of foreign language has eleven or more years of experience: 83.1%. An even higher proportion of junior college teachers has been teaching for this period of time: 92.0%. The proportion of instructors with varying degrees of experience, as shown in Table 13, is quite consistent across most of the languages that have concerned us, with classics and Russian showing the highest percentage of more experienced instructors. For instance, 94.4% of the classicists have been teaching eleven or more years.

Foreign language teachers at both the secondary and the higher education levels tend to have been in their current position for a considerable period of time. For instance, Table 14 shows that 50.7% of the secondary school respondents and 60.4% of the higher education respondents have been with their current employer for eleven or more years.

At the higher education level, we noted that four-year college instructors tend to be more evenly distributed in terms of number of years of employment at their present institution than do two-year college instructors, most of whom have been with their institutions for eleven to fifteen years. This may be an artifact of the two-year college phenomenon in the United States: junior college personnel may have been hired at the creation of these institutions, from 10 to 15 years ago, and may have since chosen to continue teaching there.

While it is widely known in the language teaching profession that an individual's options to change institutions are not what they were during the decade of the sixties, a comparison of Tables 13 and 14 documents the fact that a small amount of professional mobility still exists. For instance, Table 13 tells us that 2.3% of the secondary school

language teachers have from 0 to 2 years of experience; Table 14 shows us that 7.5% of these same respondents have been with their current employer for at least two years. If we assume that people are not likely to change jobs during their first two years, this means than 5.2% (7.5% minus 2.3%) of those individuals listed in Table 13 are actually more experienced teachers who have taken a new job within the past two years. Even greater professional mobility is demonstrated in higher education: 8% of the higher education respondents to our survey indicated that they had been with their present institution for at least two years (Table 14), but only 1.2% of these same higher education respondents indicated (in Table 13) that they had been teaching for two years or less. This means that 6.8% (8.0% minus 1.2%) of higher education language instructors in a new job less than two years are actually experienced personnel who have changed institutions.

Table 14: Length of time employed by present school district or institution.

	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
0-2 years	7.5%	8.0%
3-5 years	16.2	8.9
6-10 years	25.5	22.7
11-15 years	26.7	35.3
16-20 years	14.9	14.2
21 or more years	9.1	10.9

Table 15: Satisfaction with career as a foreign language teacher.

	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
Very satisfied	44.5%	49.1%
Moderately satisfied	41.1	32.9
Neutral	5.8	4.2
Moderately dissatisfied	6.7	10.6
Very dissatisfied	1.9	3.2

FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTOR MORALE

Given the length of time that many foreign language teachers have been in the profession, at both the secondary and the higher education levels, and given the fact that many of these individuals have been with the same employer for a substantial portion of their careers, and finally, given the fact that large numbers of foreign language teachers appear to have already obtained the 'terminal degree' appropriate for their current position, we were concerned whether foreign language teachers might be prime candidates for the phenomenon which is a much discussed in educational circles today: 'teacher burnout.' We thought that a high degree of insecurity and frustration might exist among teachers in a profession that, over the past decade, has seen more than its share of teacher lay-offs and decreases in enrollment.

In response to our question about how secure they felt in their current teaching situation, **88.8% of the secondary respondents indicated that they felt either "fairly secure" or "very secure" in their current position,** though 74.6% of these same respondents indicated that they were tenured.

Of our German respondents 20.5% feel "fairly insecure," a much greater proportion than for any other foreign language. We hypothesize that this is due to dwindling enrollments in that language, because from our data, German teachers do not appear to have less seniority than do teachers of other foreign languages, though they do have a smaller percentage of tenured instructors. Most secure are teachers of classics, Russian, and Spanish, the two former groups probably because of their larger amount of

seniority, the Spanish teachers because of the increasing importance of that language in the United States.

Language instructors in church-related secondary schools registered the highest proportion of "very secure" responses and the smallest proportion of "fairly or very insecure." Private non-denominational school teachers had the highest proportion of "very insecure" responses, perhaps because these teachers have a lower tenure rate than others. Public school teachers, though, registered the highest proportion of "fairly or very insecure" responses.

A substantially higher percentage of language instructors in higher education feels "fairly or very insecure" (16.8%) than is the case for language instructors in secondary education (11.3%). Community college teachers are somewhat more insecure in their feelings than are teachers in four-year colleges and universities. Females feel more threatened than males: 25% of the former feel fairly or very insecure as opposed to 11% for the latter. This is no doubt due, at least in part, to the fact that a much greater proportion of males is tenured (86.5%) than is the case for females (58.6%). Languages whose instructors feel most threatened are: German, French, and Italian, in that order.

Table 15 displays the levels of *job satisfaction* expressed by the respondents to our surveys. **The overwhelming majority of foreign language teachers appears to be either moderately or very satisfied, both at the secondary level (85.6%) and at the higher education level (82.0%).** The proportion of higher education instructors which is moderately or very *dis*satisfied (13.8%) is, however, substantially higher than that of secondary language teachers (8.6%).

In general, high school teachers declare themselves to be more satisfied than junior high teachers. Secondary teachers of French and Spanish express greater levels of dissatisfaction than do teachers of other languages. Substantially more women than men describe themselves as very satisfied with their careers as secondary foreign language teachers (46.3% women and 40.1% men). Overall, the differences in satisfaction are not great between secondary language teachers who have English as their native language and those who are native speakers of another language. There is, however, a substantially larger portion of the former group which declares itself *very* satisfied with teaching careers.

Private school language teachers are generally more satisfied with their profession than are those in public school. This is particularly visible in the proportion of teachers which declares itself *very* satisfied. The percentage of public school teachers expressing dissatisfaction with teaching (9.8%) is more than twice that in private schools.

With regard to the job satisfaction level of foreign language teachers in higher education, there are no significant differences between overall satisfaction levels expressed by two-year college instructors and four-year college and university instructors.

As a final, very concrete measure of the morale of the foreign language teaching profession today, we asked our respondents whether they thought it was likely that they would be teaching foreign language two years hence. More than three-quarters of both secondary school and higher education language instructors reported that they would "probably" or "definitely" be teaching a language two years hence, with the higher education proportion reaching almost 80%. It is a significant fact, however, that one-fifth of the foreign language teachers in higher education is contemplating leaving the

profession (almost five percent *seriously* contemplating), while the proportion of secondary school language teachers contemplating doing the same approaches one in four (23.5%). (We are interpreting here the "not sure" response in Table 16 as meaning that the respondent has at least contemplated leaving the profession.)

Among secondary language teachers, it is disturbing to discover that the youngest teachers appear much more likely to leave teaching than do the more experienced ones. For example, of those with eleven or more years of experience, 13.8% indicated a probability or possibility that they would not be teaching in two years, but for those with three to five years experience, fully 29.7% indicated that it was probable or possible that they would not be teaching two years from now.

Among the higher education respondents, almost 30% of two-year college language teachers indicated that there was some question as to whether or not they would be teaching two years from now; for four-year college and university instructors, the proportion was about 20%.

Although at the secondary level there is no significant difference between males' and females' feelings about remaining in the foreign language teaching profession, in higher education significantly more females than males appear to be contemplating leaving language instruction.

Table 16: Probability that respondent will be teaching foreign language two years hence.

	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
Definitely will be teaching	33.1%	44.5%
Probably will be teaching	43.4	35.4
Possibly will not be teaching	12.5	10.5
Probably will not be teaching	4.2	4.7
Not sure	6.8	4.9

The image of the foreign language teaching profession at both the secondary and the higher education levels is that of a corps of instructors, a large percentage of which feels reasonably satisfied with its jobs and secure in them, and which has no plans to stop teaching foreign language. There is a significant group of individuals, however, reaching to perhaps one-third of some subgroups of the language teaching profession, which is not very satisfied with the job, not secure in current positions, and which is giving at least some thought to leaving the foreign language profession. Certainly this latter group is deserving of our attention so that it may be either encouraged to stay in the profession or counseled to leave it. But it is the group of foreign language instructors at all levels which expects to remain in the profession that should be of primary concern, since the fortunes of our profession for at least the next decade are likely to rest in its hands.

RECENT PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

We gathered information in the survey in three areas related to the professional growth of foreign language teachers: recency of last visit to the target culture; most recent inservice or professional development experience; future professional development experience considered to be potentially most valuable to the respondent's language teaching. Most language teachers agree that a knowledge of the target culture is important to their teaching and at least two studies have shown that extensive teacher experience in the target culture tends to correlate with better language learning on the part of students.[8] We were also interested to discover in what sort of activities secondary, college, and university language teachers were engaged in order to improve the quality of their language teaching. We wanted to discover their perception of the value of these experiences, and to find out how this professional development was being financed. Finally, we wanted to know what sort of activities language instructors would like in the future in order to improve their teaching.

With respect to *recent travel abroad,* we were surprised and impressed to discover that almost 30% of both secondary and higher education foreign language teachers had "visited a country or area where the language they teach is spoken natively" within the past six months. And almost two-thirds of both groups had visited such an area within the past two years. Only 3.2% of the secondary school teachers and 1.8% of higher education instructors had never visited an area where the language they teach is spoken.

At both secondary and higher education levels, more women than men are likely to have traveled recently to the foreign culture. For example, in the secondary population, only 13.9% of the women instructors had not visited the country within the past five years. For men, the percentage was 21.2%. In the higher education sample, 39.8% of the female language instructors had visited the foreign culture within six months; for males, the percentage was 21.8%.

In both higher education and secondary samples, more experienced instructors are likely not to have visited the foreign culture more recently than the less experienced teachers. For example, in the higher education sample, 53.5% of the instructors with from 0 to 2 years of experience have visited the foreign culture within the past six months; 29.1% of the instructors with eleven or more years experience had done the same.

Table 17 indicates that by far **the most frequent inservice professional development activity for secondary language teachers is a regular academic year course:** 27.9% of the respondents had taken such a course over the past three college or university years. The other most preferred modes of professional development by secondary teachers were: college or university summer school course work (19.7%), and "other" experiences (15.3%). The most frequently mentioned activities in the "other" or free response option were workshops conducted by professional organizations at the local, regional, and national level, and experience abroad, either personal travel and study or

8. John B. Carroll, *The Teaching of French as a Foreign Language in Eight Countries.* Stockholm: Almqvist and Wicksell International, 1975, and Robert L. Politzer and Louis Weiss, *Characteristics and Behaviors of the Successful Foreign Language Teacher,* Technical Report No. 5,; Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Palo Alto, CA, 1969 [ERIC: ED 031 124].

involvement with a study tour for students. **Least acclaimed of all professional development experiences was the workshop sponsored by the school district.** This finding surprised us, since most state, federal, and local teacher inservice programs are proceeding under the assumption that schools must have control over teacher inservice experiences in order for them to be directed to the real concerns of today's school situation.

Table 17: Most extensive professional experience over the past three years.

Options Offered, Form SF	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents	Options Offered, Form HEF
Short (1-2 day) workshop sponsored by school district	17.3%	11.0%	Short (1-2 day) workshop sponsored by school district
Regular academic year college or university course	27.9	11.5	Regular academic year college or university course
College/university summer course	19.7	4.5	College/university summer course
Summer institute/workshop sponsored by a college/ university	9.4	16.2	Summer institute/workshop sponsored by a college/ university
Other experiences (please describe)	15.3	17.6	Other
Have not had opportunity	10.5	11.4	Have not had opportunity
		27.2	Sabbatical or other released time devoted to individual study

Among the foreign language instructors **in higher education, the sabbatical is the most frequently-mentioned, extensive, professional development experience.** After the sabbatical, the most frequently indicated option on our questionnaire is the "other" option. The free responses here were quite diverse, but the most frequent by far was individual research and publication. These responses might be counted with the sabbaticals, which are typically spent pursuing individual research interests. The addition of these added free responses would raise the "sabbatical-like" experience to around 30%. The other most frequently-indicated, professional development experiences in the higher education free response area were: academic degree work, workshops put on by professional associations, and seminars at other institutions.

The most common focus for professional development experiences in higher education is the study of literature: 37.5% of our Form HEF respondents indicated that this was the nature of their most recent important professional development. Experiences in culture and civilization (24.6%) and language teaching methodology (24.0%) were next most frequent.

A rather surprising fact about the response to this question is that almost one-third of our higher education respondents did not check any response at all, which could be taken to indicate that a rather substantial segment of language instructors in higher education does not consider professional development to be extremely interesting or valuable. We hope, for the sake of language students in this country and for the sake of the future of our profession, that this is not the case. It could be that our respondents do value professional development, but don't like to indicate their preferences on the mat-

ter in questionnaires!

The attitudes of new instructors toward professional development appear extremely positive: 97.1% of their evaluative responses were positive. Instructors with three to five years experience seemed to become more critical toward professional development: 38.2% of our respondents in this age group evaluated their recent professional development negatively; instructors with from six to ten years of experience and eleven or more years experience were somewhat less negative in their evaluation of professional development (about 25% negative responses) than were those with three to five years experience.

The response which caused us most concern was that professional development in foreign language pedagogy was judged most harshly by higher education foreign language instructors: 37.5% of those reporting found it of "slight value," while 61.5% found the work "extremely valuable" or "of substantial value." In contrast, work in literature was found to be valuable by 83.3% of the respondents who engaged in it and work in culture and civilization was considered to be of such value by 87.5% of those who undertook it.

Clearly, **there is a high degree of resistance to the consideration of language pedagogy by a significant proportion of (but by no means all) college instructors of foreign languages.** It is clear that considerable effort must be expended in order to present college faculty with professional development experiences in language pedagogy that will be perceived by them as useful, challenging, and rewarding.

When designing the survey, we made certain to include a question concerning the financing of professional development, since we were convinced that any professional development undertaken would be likely to be personally financed. This was true for language teachers in both secondary and higher education (as for many other instructors, particularly in the humanities). Table 18 shows the results we obtained from respondents when we asked how the professional development experience discussed above was paid for. Our hypothesis was supported, though not as strongly as we

Table 18: Financing professional development.

Options Offered, Form SF*	Secondary School Respondents	Higher Education Respondents	Options Offered, Form HEF*
Paid with personal funds	50.1%	29.2%	Paid with personal funds
Received scholarship from institution attending	1.4	5.3	Received scholarship from institution attending
School district/school provided inservice funds	27.0	19.7	Sabbatical or other salaried leave from home institution
Outside source; grant, etc.	4.6	17.7	Outside source; grant, etc.
Other (specify)	4.7	10.3	Other (specify)

*Respondents could choose more than one option.

thought would be the case: 50.1% of the secondary respondents and 29.2% of the higher education respondents paid for at least part of their professional development out of their own pockets. And, since more than 90% of the respondents in both the secondary and the higher education groups indicated only one response on this question (though they had the possibility of checking as many responses as were ap-

propriate), we can have some degree of assurance that **about 45% of the secondary school respondents and about 25% of the higher education respondents were paying completely for professional development with their own funds.** Another fact which is very well documented in Table 18 is that language instructors in higher education can tap considerably more numerous sources of support for professional development than can language teachers in secondary schools. The fact that the educational system of this country has not seen fit to provide its secondary teachers with sources of support for further education should be an embarrassment to our nation. There is no question but that this situation, if allowed to continue, will have a negative effect on the quality of American secondary education.

One curious fact about these data, which may cause the information in Table 18 to be non-representative of the population, is that the "no response" rate for this question was one of the highest in the survey: 19% of our secondary respondents and 25.5% of the higher education respondents left it blank.

Significant proportions of secondary and, in particular higher education respondents indicated some "other" source of funding for their professional development. Responses in this category from secondary teachers tended, in the majority, to make reference to the fact that a school system or single institution had paid *part* of the costs, while the individual had paid the remaining amount. For the substantial percentage (10.3%) of higher education respondents who checked "other," most write-in responses referred to payment for the professional development experience by the home institution through some method (e.g., a dean's faculty development fund) which had not been considered in our questionnaire.

MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The data presented in Table 19 make it clear that **language instructors in higher education are indisputably more likely to be members of professional organiza-**

Table 19: Membership in national professional associations by association and by percent of SF and HEF samples, and by raw N's of SF and HEF samples. (Form SF N = 732; Form HEF N = 335)

	Secondary Group - Form SF		Higher Education Group - Form HEF	
Association	Raw N	Wtd., adjusted %	Raw N	Wtd., adjusted %
AATF	184	31.2	86	30.6
AATG	75	10.4	53	20.3
AATI	38	2.0	23	2.8
AATSEEL	18	0.7	36	3.9
AATSP	170	28.1	110	39.6
AAUP	2	0.4	94	30.8
ACTFL	194	28.6	147	45.5
AFT	67	9.8	23	6.1
LSA	3	0.3	21	6.4
MLA	111	15.5	137	44.7
NEA	239	33.0	34	8.4
TESOL	15	1.8	20	3.1
OTHER	93	9.6	62	17.8
OTHER	20	1.9	24	6.7
NONE	68	9.7	15	4.5

tions than are secondary teachers. In addition, college instructors of language are much more likely to belong to more than one professional association.

In fact, as Table 20 demonstrates, there is enough multiple membership in associations at the higher education level to cause there to be more memberships in three language-specific associations (AATG, AATI, AATSEEL) than there were teachers of those languages in our sample! This phenomenon also supports our contention that some former instructors of languages currently experiencing severe enrollment problems (especially German and Russian) are now teaching more widely-taught languages (e.g., French and Spanish) while attempting to maintain their ties with their original language.

For instance, of the secondary school language teachers, 45.2% belong to one professional organization only. A little over one-quarter more belongs to two organizations, and almost 20% belong to three national professional organizations. In the higher education group, more than 45% belong to three or more national professional organizations!

The high percentages of the overall sample's membership in AATF and AATSP reflect the fact that large portions of these samples are teachers of French and Spanish.

Table 20: Percentage of Northeast Conference language group belonging to language-specific national organization.

	Secondary Group	Higher Education Group
AATF	75.4%	88.7%
AATG	101.3	132.5
AATI	84.4	109.5
AATSEEL	62.1	105.9
AATSP	71.7	88.0

It is disappointing to see that only a little more than one-quarter of the secondary language teachers belongs to ACTFL. Perhaps a partial explanation lies in the fact just mentioned about secondary teachers, i.e., almost half of them tends to belong to one professional organization only. The data presented in Table 20 show that secondary teachers' membership in language-specific professional associations tends to be quite high. We were surprised by the fairly substantial percentage (15.5%) of secondary teachers which indicated membership in the MLA, a professional association which preoccupies itself predominately with literary matters in higher education. We wonder whether some respondents did not erroneously associate the MLA with the *Modern Language Journal,* which devotes itself primarily to matters of foreign language pedagogy.

In the higher education group, we were interested to see how close the proportions of membership in ACTFL and MLA were, particularly given the critical evaluation of a substantial proportion of our higher education respondents with regard to professional development in language pedagogy. To us, the fact that 45% of our respondents care enough about pedagogy to belong to ACTFL is an encouraging sign.

The write-in responses furnished us with no great surprises, except for the fact that a substantial proportion of both secondary and college instructors' responses referred to state and regional professional societies, which were specifically excluded from con-

sideration in our instructions! We *did* discover an error in questionnaire construction however: we had not included in our response options the American Classical League (ACL), the principal national organization of classicists. Fully 25% of our write-ins at the secondary level were teachers of classics. Write-in responses from college language instructors cover a very broad range of special interest societies, with no one society receiving a notably large number of mentions.

Current Working Situation

TEACHING ENVIRONMENT

Of our secondary foreign language teachers, we asked three separate questions relating to their teaching environment. The first of these had to do with the "institution type," in which the teacher is employed. Secondly, we wanted to know how many languages were taught in the secondary schools of our respondents, and to what level. Thirdly, we wanted to discover what human resources are available to them (i.e., resource teachers and curriculum coordinators). Of our higher education respondents, we wanted to know what sort of cooperative agreements exist between language and other academic departments on campus, in order to further advanced language study.

The importance of private school concerns, both those of non-denominational institutions and those of church-related institutions, to the Northeast Conference becomes clear when one notes that 23.3% of the respondents to our secondary school questionnaire are private school teachers: 9.7% from non-sectarian and 13.6% from church-related schools. Rather than discuss all the differences among these three types of institutions under this particular rubric of our Report, we have chosen to mention them throughout the Report. Where differences between public and private school language teaching are judged to be significant, they are discussed; where they are judged minor, nothing is said.

Several characteristics of the private school groups may be mentioned here. Proportionately more Italian and classics are taught in private, church-related schools than in either private non-denominational or public schools, if we are to judge from the number of Italian and classics teachers in our sample. Our sample also contains proportionately fewer Spanish teachers from private schools than teachers of French, which would indicate that French rather than Spanish is more likely to be taught in private schools. In addition, a larger proportion of non-native speakers of English is likely to be teaching in non-denominational private schools than in either church-related or public schools. Finally, the teaching population in private schools appears to be somewhat younger than that in public schools: a larger proportion of teachers with 3 to 5 years of experience may be found in private schools than in public schools; and one finds a smaller proportion of teachers of eleven or more years of experience in private schools.

We asked our respondents what languages were being taught in their schools. The results, as shown in Table 21, demonstrate that French and Spanish are taught in far more schools, at least within the population range of the Northeast Conference, than any other language: French is taught in 93.6% of the schools and Spanish is taught in 91.7%. German is in third place; it is taught in 55.6% of the respondents' schools.

Table 21: Proportion of secondary respondents' schools which offer instruction in various languages.

	Percentage of Respondents' Institutions Offering
FRENCH	93.6%
GERMAN	55.6
ITALIAN	18.0
LATIN/GREEK	51.6
RUSSIAN	8.9
SPANISH	91.7
ESL	17.4
OTHER	3.8

Table 22: Highest level of secondary respondents' principal language of instruction offered in their schools.

	Junior High	Senior High	Total
Level I	38.2%	3.2%	6.4%
Level II	41.1	10.0	12.9
Level III	5.1	11.4	10.8
Level IV	5.2	37.6	34.6
Level V and beyond	10.5	37.8	35.3

Very few of the schools in our sample offer only one foreign language (less than 5% overall). For example, 1.8% of the sample offered instruction only in French, 3.0% only in Spanish. The most common combinations of languages to be offered are: French and Spanish (17.4% of our sample); French, German, Latin, and Spanish (14.6%); French, Latin, and Spanish (11.3%).

Having gleaned an impression of the breadth of foreign language offerings in our sample population, we now turn our attention to the depth of this instruction, to discover how many years of instruction in one foreign language are offered by the schools covered in our survey. In order to make meaningful the information reported by our respondents, we asked them to report only the numbers of years of instruction offered in their principal language of instruction. Table 22 displays this information, which is impressive in that it shows that **a rather large proportion of senior high schools (37.8%) offers foreign language instruction in at least one foreign language through the fifth year and beyond.** Fewer than 25% of the high schools surveyed offered instruction only through three levels or less. The 10.5% of junior high schools offering language through level five and beyond, appear to us to be a blatantly anomalous figure. It is perhaps the result of some sort of misunderstanding or error which we have not yet discovered.

In this time of shrinking educational budgets, we wanted to find out what sort of personnel resources (i.e., resource teachers and curriculum coordinators) were available to the teachers in our sample. In response to our question about resource teachers, 16.2% of our secondary teachers indicated that they do have a resource teacher in their building. Junior high schools are less likely to have a resource teacher than are senior highs. Private, non-sectarian schools are much more likely to have a resource teacher (25.1% employ such individuals) than are public schools (15.7%) and church-related schools (7.9%). **Many more teachers who had resource persons in their building stated that they were very satisfied with their careers as language teachers (60.8%) than did those who did not have access to resource teachers (41.1%).** This difference cannot, of course, be attributed in its entirety to the presence of resource personnel, since schools that can furnish such instructional support are likely to be able to furnish other types of support as well.

About one-fourth of our secondary respondent population indicated that it works in buildings or districts where there is a full time foreign language coordinator. Another

20% of our respondents indicated that they work in districts where there is curriculum supervision that is not foreign language-specific.

Public schools are more likely than private ones to have a foreign language coordinator's position: 29.5% of the public school respondents reported the presence of a full-time foreign language coordinator. Less than half that proportion was reported by private, non-sectarian institutions and less than one-quarter that number by the church-related teachers. The presence of a district or building foreign language coordinator appears to have no positive or negative effect on teacher satisfaction.

We asked our higher education respondents whether their language department had any formal or informal arrangements with other departments on their campus to encourage the study (preferably at an advanced level) of foreign language *plus* an academic major in another field. Respondents could indicate as many of the various responses as applied to their own situation. As one might surmise from reading the literature in foreign language education, the proportion of arrangements between business programs and foreign language departments was the largest: 34.4% of all higher education respondents. The humanities and the social sciences tied for second place with 32.6% for both discipline areas. Third came the fine arts: 17.8% of our population have formalized some sort of agreement between the foreign language and the fine arts departments; 7.3% of our respondents have established such programs with departments in the natural sciences. In the area of engineering, the proportion of such agreements was miniscule: 0.3%. We found this last figure to be extremely surprising, given the number of anecdotal reports we have heard about the usefulness of foreign language skills to future engineers.

INDIVIDUAL TEACHER RESPONSIBILITIES

We wanted to explore several areas of specific individual responsibilities with our respondents. Particularly, we wanted to know how many foreign languages they were teaching and what these foreign languages were, for both the secondary and the higher education respondents. For our secondary group, we wanted to know what percentage of the teaching corps is faced with the dubious challenge of trying to teach two different levels of language in the same class hour. We also wanted to discover whether any secondary teachers had class hours in which they were expected to teach more than one language. Finally, we wanted to discover how many of our secondary and higher education respondents were part-time teachers only.

Table 23 shows the proportion of teachers teaching each one of the languages with which we were concerned in this survey. The reader will notice immediately that both the secondary respondents' column and the higher education respondents' column add up to more than 100%, which means that some of our respondents are teaching more than one foreign language. As a matter of fact, a considerable number of foreign language teachers at both the secondary and the higher education level is teaching two foreign languages. For secondary school, the proportion of teachers working with two foreign languages is 24.5%; for higher education, the proportion is 21.7%. Of the higher education foreign language instructors, 3% are teaching three foreign languages, and 2.4% of the secondary respondents are doing likewise.

More than one-quarter of our secondary survey respondents (27.2%) indicated

that it was teaching at least one course which contained more than one level, e.g., a combination class including French II and French III students.

Table 23: Languages taught by survey respondents.

	Secondary Respondents	Higher Education Respondents
FRENCH	50.8%	37.3%
GERMAN	11.8	22.3
ITALIAN	3.4	5.8
LATIN/GREEK	6.9	1.7
RUSSIAN	1.6	4.3
SPANISH	50.3	48.8
ESL	1.8	6.5
OTHER	3.1	3.8

The practice of mixing language levels in a class period is more than twice as prevalent in senior high school than it is in junior high. It is more than twice as likely to occur in German classrooms than it is in French or Spanish. A very surprising 58.6% of German teachers reported that they were teaching mixed-level classes.

An unfortunate situation uncovered by our research is that **the neophyte rather than the experienced teacher is more likely to end up with mixed-level classes.** Of the newest teachers (0 to 2 years experience), 35.3% reported having mixed-level classes; 24.7% of the teachers with eleven or more years experience reported having similar classes.

Level mixing is not widespread in non-sectarian private schools; only 5.3% of the respondents indicated that they were responsible for such classes, while 21.7% of our respondents in church-related schools reported having the responsibility for such courses. The phenomenon is most evident in the public schools, where 32.1% of the teachers reported being obliged to conduct such multi-level classes. There once was a time when foreign language educators could admonish school administrators concerning their naiveté with regard to enlightened language learning procedures and mixed-level foreign language classes. Given the large numbers of language teachers who are faced today with these mixed-level classes, it is not likely that the confrontational approach, particularly with regard to higher-level language classes (above level III, for instance), will accomplish much besides an ultimatum: "Either you teach the mixed-level course or you teach no language course at all in that class hour; the alternative is to cancel the class and to have you teach something else." In many school districts, where administrators may be extremely well-disposed toward the value of foreign language learning, class sizes of 18 or smaller are administratively impossible or even illegal, according to school board policy. In addition, the financial strictures on both public and private education are likely to get worse before they get better.

So, it is incumbent upon us in foreign language education to propose solutions to the mixed-level foreign language classes that will help solve school-wide problems of enrollment while at the same time encourage the maximum number of students to study language for the maximum amount of time. We should, of course, make it clear that we do not consider this, by any means, the best way to learn languages and we should attempt to perform research studies that document the inferiority of mixed-level

foreign language learning to single-level language learning, so that when the opportunity presents itself to change a program to the latter mode, there is ample evidence to demonstrate its superiority.[9]

In addition to our question about mixed-level classes, we asked our secondary respondents whether they were currently teaching any classes in which there were students of more than one language. Only 1.2% of our secondary group (12 individuals) indicated that they were teaching such a course. Most of these classes appear to be those in which both Latin and Greek are taught in religiously-affiliated schools.

Secondary respondents were asked whether they taught subjects other than foreign languages: 78% responded that they taught foreign language only, with only 22% indicating that they teach subjects other than foreign language. Teachers of German, classics, and Russian teach substantially more non-foreign language courses than do teachers of French and Spanish. The reason for this is, no doubt, that the aforementioned are languages which, over the past decade or so, have been declining in enrollment. **A larger proportion of new teachers is teaching other subjects, in addition to foreign languages.** For instance, 39.1% of the teachers with 0 to 2 years experience indicated that they were teaching other subjects; for those with eleven years experience or more, the proportion was 17.3%.

The overwhelming majority of both secondary and higher education respondents in our survey is full time teachers: 96.3% of the secondary teachers and 94.1% of the foreign language teachers in higher education. Of all the subgroups in both the secondary and the college and university groups, private, non-denominational schools had the greatest proportion of part time teachers: 10.8%. Even in the group of community college instructors, where we expected to find a substantial portion of part-timers, we found only 5.4%. Both the secondary and the higher education part-timers split into two groups, with respect to the amount of time they spend in class per week. In the secondary groups, about half is in class for approximately four hours, the other half for approximately 18 hours per week. In the higher education group, about one-half the group is in class for about five hours; the other half teaches 12 hours a week.

EXTRAMURAL FUNDING FOR SPECIAL PROJECTS

Our secondary respondents were asked whether they thought it was possible for them to request funding from their state department of education to finance a project in curriculum or instructional development in their school. Of our secondary respondents, 21.4% thought it was possible, 22.7% thought it was not possible, and 55.9% were not sure. As one might think, the experienced teachers were more knowledgeable about funding possibilities than were new teachers: of the respondents with eleven or more years of experience, 51.1% did not know if funding was available; of those with 0 to 2 years of teaching experience, 90.1% were not sure. A somewhat smaller number of private school teachers was unsure about the possibility of getting money from outside sources: of the private, non-sectarian schools, 42.6% were unsure;

9. For a helpful discussion of practical solutions to the problems of the mixed-level foreign language class, see Lorraine A. Strasheim, "The Issue: Multi-level Classes," and H. Baird Hunter and Pat Barr-Harrison, "Look What They've Done to my Class, Ma!" in *Foreign Language Annals* 12, 5 (October 1979).

in the church-related schools, 47.1% were unsure; in the public schools, 59.7% were unsure.

It is clear from these responses that communications have broken down in the foreign language profession when it comes to knowing about the availability of small grants for curriculum development in foreign language classes. In the vast majority of states, grant money is available to resourceful teachers who simply take the trouble to ask for it. For the individual teacher in a school district or school building who does not have a 'grants person' to help him or her plod through the bureaucratic morass, a great deal of perseverance is required. Frequently, the foreign language coordinator of the state or the foreign language coordinator of a large school district can be of invaluable help in aiding an individual to seek out sources of small grants.

Those secondary respondents who indicated that they thought it was possible to receive grant money from their states for curriculum development were asked a second question: Had they ever written a proposal and, if so, what had been its success? Out of the total sample of secondary school teachers, 2.7% indicated that they had applied for funding and had been turned down, and 3.1% indicated that they had received funding for a project or projects.

The respondents to the higher education form were asked a parallel question in which they were to indicate whether they had received funds for curriculum development *outside* their institution; a total of 18.7% responded affirmatively.

In addition, higher education respondents were asked whether they had received funds for a project in curriculum and instructional development from *within* their institution: 9.5% indicated that they had received funds from the foreign language department, and 26.1% indicated that they had received funding from elsewhere in their institution. Only 3.2% of the total number of respondents indicated that they had received grants from both these sources.

Current Teaching Practices, Curricular Offerings, Use of Resources, and Promotional Practices

In this section of our Report, we will discuss the responses of both secondary and higher education language instructors to a series of questions which was virtually identical for both groups. We asked questions which we thought to be representative of the principal topics of concern addressed repeatedly in our professional journals. In many of the questions, we specifically requested our respondents to limit their consideration to what they do in their first-year foreign language classes. Our reason for doing this was because we wanted to specify, as carefully as we reasonably could, the environment in which various teaching practices, testing practices, and educational media might be used.

TEACHING PRACTICES

In response to our question about how they were *individualizing foreign language instruction,* the most frequently selected response for both secondary and higher education instructors was that it was not feasible for them to individualize instruction in their teaching situation. Of the secondary teachers 36.3% responded in this way; for college instructors, the proportion was 45.6%. Significant proportions of both groups, however, indicated that they chose different instructional materials for different students: 32.6% of the secondary teachers and 24.1% of the college instructors chose this response. Of the approximately 30% of our total sample of secondary teachers who indicated that they used self-paced instruction at all, only 7.5% indicated that they used this method for one or more classes as the principle mode of instruction. A smaller proportion of the college instructors indicated that it used self-paced instruction in any way: 22.4%.

We asked our respondents to estimate the *percentage of class time spent teaching about the foreign language culture* in their first-year classes. We cautioned them to include in this response only that time during which the primary purpose is to convey cultural information. Fully 19.6% of our secondary respondents and 23.3% of our higher education respondents indicated that they spend less than 5% of their class time on cultural information in their first-year classes, although virtually *no* one at either level (less than 1% for both levels) admitted to spending no class time on instruction concerning the foreign language culture. For both secondary and higher education respondents, approximately 60% indicated that they spent somewhere between six and twenty percent of their instructional time on cultural material. Approximately eleven percent of our respondents at both levels did not answer this question because they do not teach first-year language.

There has been much discussion in foreign language education literature over the past several years about the concept of *communicative competence* in a foreign language learning environment. One of the main themes in second-language acquisition research today is the importance for the language learner of being able to put together sentences which convey his or her personal meaning. We wanted to find out what percentage of class time our secondary and college respondents were devoting in their first-year classes to non-drill language activities during which students are guided to 'express themselves' in a communicative situation (e.g., games, simulations, role playing, etc.). We specifically requested our respondents *not* to include in their responses any acting out of dialogs or performance of other memorized material. About 30% of both higher education and secondary respondents indicated that they spent less than 5% of their class time on this type of activity. Substantial proportions of both groups (31.5% secondary, 25.1% higher education) spend between six and ten percent of their class time on communicative activities. And almost 20% of both groups spend somewhere between eleven and twenty percent of their class time in first-year classes on such activities.

One of the ways to make a foreign language 'live' in the classroom is to *invite visitors to make presentations or talk with language students.* We wanted to discover to what extent this was being practiced in college and secondary classrooms. About 35% of both groups indicated that they invited advanced foreign language students into their first-

year classes. Secondary teachers appeared to be only slightly more willing to invite their colleagues into their classes than college and university instructors (21.8% for the former, 20.3% for the latter). Approximately 35% of both groups responded that they invite native speakers from the community to visit their classes. The primary difference between secondary and college language instructor practices occurred in the use of foreign students in classes, which appears to be more widespread at the secondary level (47.6% of the respondents are doing this) than it does at the higher education level (38.8% of the respondents are doing likewise).

Foreign language learning in an intensive mode (which usually means several hours immersion in the language a day) is a topic which is quite frequently discussed in recent foreign language education literature, particularly with regard to programs in higher education. We wanted to discover how many people had experience with this mode of instruction at both the secondary and the higher education levels. Very few of our secondary respondents indicated that an intensive language course was offered at their institution during school year 1978-79: 5.4%. The response was very different, however, from our higher education respondents, of whom 35% indicated that their institution had offered an intensive foreign language course during school year 1978-79.[10]

CURRICULAR OFFERINGS

A topic which has been quite widely discussed both by writers focusing on secondary education and by those focusing on college and university instruction, deals with the design of the course which, through a foreign language, aims to *educate the student about the nature of language in general.* These courses are extremely diverse in nature, and can include everything from a potpourri of language instruction (two weeks of French, two weeks of German, two weeks of Spanish, two weeks of Russian, for example) to a course closely resembling an introductory course in linguistics. We asked our secondary respondents whether any schools in their district offer a course in 'exploratory foreign language' and, if so, at what level. We also asked our higher education respondents whether or not their institution offered a course with a title such as 'Introduction to Language.' Of the secondary respondents, 23.1% indicated that some sort of exploratory course was taught at the junior high school level in their school or district. Only 1.7% indicated that exploratory foreign language was taught at the senior high level, and 1.0% indicated that it was taught at both levels. Of our higher education respondents, 20.3% indicated that an 'Introduction to Language' course was being offered on their campus during the 1979-80 academic year.

Career education in foreign language teaching, particularly at the secondary level, has been very much in evidence in the foreign language journals for at least half a decade. We asked our secondary and college respondents how much total class time during the past school year they had spent informing their students of the potential value of foreign language skills on today's job market. Of the secondary respondents, 3.9% indicated that they had spent no time at all; for the higher education respondents, the

10. For an extended discussion and selected bibliography on the subject of such courses in higher education, see David P. Benseler and Renate A. Schulz, *Intensive Foreign Language Courses,* Language in Education #18, Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1979 [ERIC: FL 010 82].

proportion was 13.4%. Approximately one-third of the secondary respondents indicated that they spent one class period or less during the school year on career education; for higher education respondents, the proportion was 50%. Slightly over one-half of secondary respondents indicated that it spent from one to five class periods on career education; for higher education respondents the proportion was 28.3%. The remaining instructors, about 10% at the secondary level, about 8% at the college and university level, indicated that they spent six or more class periods on career education during the past school year.

LANGUAGE TESTING PRACTICES

As any student quickly learns, a teacher's statement about what he or she is trying to accomplish in any given classroom does not necessarily coincide with that teacher's goals. A teacher's goals are best discovered by inspecting the kinds of tests he or she administers. For this reason, we asked our secondary and higher education respondents a series of five questions dealing with tests they administer to their language classes. While we were interested to discover what sorts of tests they use, we were also interested in making inferences about the priorities implied by their responses.

We asked our respondents whether they give their students *tests in listening comprehension* as part of the regular testing program to determine course grades. A majority of the higher education respondents (55.3%) indicated that it "always or almost always" gives students a test of listening comprehension; for secondary respondents the percentage was 38.2%. For higher education respondents, 25.6% give such tests "frequently;" for secondary respondents the proportion is 33.0%. Since the beginning of the audio-lingual language teaching movement some twenty years ago, the listening skill has been described as the 'forgotten' skill. But for a substantial proportion of our respondents (71.2% at the secondary level, 80.9% at the higher education level), it appears that listening comprehension is not forgotten at all, and is regularly tested. On the other hand, it is disheartening to note that approximately 30% of the secondary school teachers and approximately 20% of the higher education teachers do not test their students' listening comprehension frequently.

Two characteristics seem to be shared by both secondary and higher education instructors in foreign language, with respect to tests of listening comprehension. First, females in both groups appear to believe that tests of listening comprehension are more important than do males, although the proportion of females is substantially higher in the higher education group than it is in the secondary education group. Secondly, new instructors tend to test listening comprehension more systematically than do instructors with more teaching experience. This last result may indicate a trend that should be of concern to language educators. More experienced language instructors might be paying less attention to the development of listening comprehension in their students for a multitude of reasons. One of these reasons might be simply that these teachers entered the profession at a time when the development of auditory comprehension was not considered as important as it has been for the past 15 years or so. Another reason might be that as teachers gain experience they are less and less willing to take the trouble to either construct themselves or to seek out tests of listening comprehension. If this is in fact what is taking place, the profession has serious cause for alarm and steps should be taken to provide both auditory comprehension testing instruments and professional

development experiences to aid in their implementation, so as to counteract a potential 'professional regression' that would cause us to lose the insights gained by two decades of experience.

Our second question concerning testing asked language instructors whether they tested "communicative competence." We attempted to clarify this term by stating that we wanted to know whether language instructors were giving tests that require students to convey meaning in a non-memorized conversational situation. In this question, as in the last, a substantially larger proportion of our higher education respondents indicated that it utilized this kind of testing procedure. For example, 29% of our higher education respondents indicated that they used such tests "always or almost always," while the proportion for secondary respondents was 10.7%. In all, 53.0% of our college and university respondents indicated that they tested the communicative competence of their students. For secondary school respondents the percentage was 33.8%.

In both the secondary and the higher education groups of respondents, a substantially larger proportion of non-native speakers of English indicated that it tested more for communicative competence than did native speakers. For instance, in the secondary group, 20.7% of the non-natives indicated that they always or almost always gave such tests; for native English speakers, the proportion was 9.6%. What characteristics might non-native English speakers have that would cause them to care more than anglophones about their students' development of communicative competence? One possibility might be that most anglophone foreign language teachers in this country do not feel at home enough in their foreign language to conduct such loosely structured interview tests. Another might be that foreign-born individuals living in our anglophone society are constantly made aware of the need to communicate, however imperfectly, in a foreign language, while the anglophone teacher does not have this continuing reminder.

From the data that we have, it is difficult to do more than speculate about possible explanations, and the matter certainly merits further investigation. Current second-language learning theory and practice seem to be converging toward a view that stresses the importance of language learning for conveying real messages. Over the past two decades, many have expressed the notion that native speakers of languages were particularly ill-suited to teach these languages, since, never having been obliged to learn them as second languages, they are not as sensitive to the learning difficulties such languages present. It could be, though, that this difficulty is more than made up for by the inclination that native speakers may have to foster communication in the language they teach.

In order to obtain some idea of what percentage of language teachers used a more 'traditional' approach to testing than the two just discussed, we asked our respondents to indicate how frequently they used *dictation as a testing device.* Approximately 60% of our respondents at both the secondary and the higher education level indicated that they used dictation "frequently" in their language tests. Not surprisingly, teachers of French were by far the most frequent users of this method of language testing, since the sound-symbol correspondence of that language is the most difficult of all the languages we were considering in the study.

Another 'traditional' method of testing is to evaluate the students' *knowledge of foreign language vocabulary,* either by having them provide synonyms, English or foreign

language equivalents or by giving definitions. A substantially higher proportion of our secondary respondents (81.6%) indicated that it "frequently" or "always" or "almost always" tested its students in this fashion; the corresponding proportion for higher education respondents was 67.1%. On both the secondary and the higher education levels, teachers of German appear to be the most concerned about teaching vocabulary.

Our final question concerning testing asked whether the institution of the respondent administered any *standardized foreign language achievement tests* in order to compare student achievement to national or state or district norms. Approximately 60% of the respondents in both secondary and higher education indicated that they did no such testing. Of our secondary respondents, 23.6% indicated that they administered a standardized test every year; for respondents in higher education, the proportion was 22.7%. Furthermore, 14.6% of the secondary respondents and 18.1% of the higher education respondents told us that they administered such tests occasionally. We were surprised that this large proportion of our respondents claimed to be using standardized tests, since the only tests available for the languages we were dealing with in this survey are very old and generally conceded to be out of date and no longer valid. It is possible that our question was misinterpreted to include 'standardized' departmental examinations in colleges and universities, and teacher-prepared, district-wide examinations in school districts, although we made an effort in the wording of the question to exclude such possibilities. If it is true that somewhere between 35 and 40% of language instructors at both the secondary and higher education levels are using professionally-prepared and commercially available standardized tests, it is absolutely essential that the language teaching profession update the editions of the tests that are currently available so that we may have more confidence in the results obtained.

USE OF EDUCATIONAL MEDIA

In the early sixties, the foreign language profession in this country embraced enthusiastically a number of machines that were proclaimed at the time to be extremely valuable, if not indispensible, for a high-quality foreign language instruction program. In order to obtain an idea of the amount that some of these machines are used today, and since one of the themes of the 1980 Northeast Conference is the future application of educational technology to foreign language teaching, we decided to ask our respondents a series of questions about their use of several widely-known machines.

The most basic piece of audiovisual equipment that a teacher can use in the classroom is the *tape recorder*. Our secondary school respondents indicate that the use of the tape recorder is quite widespread at that level, with almost three-quarters (72.4%) of the respondents indicating that they use a tape recorder once a week or more frequently. College instructors do not use the tape recorder nearly as often. Only 41.5% of our higher education respondents indicated that they used a tape recorder once a week or more frequently, and fully 22.1% told us that they did not use a tape recorder at all. A major reason for this large difference in level of use may be that secondary teachers generally teach in a single classroom, in which they can amass the equipment and instructional materials needed; college instructors frequently are at the mercy of campus-wide class schedulers, and must hold their classes in rooms that are far from their instructional materials and audiovisual equipment.

The *overhead projector* is much more widely used in secondary than in college classes:

41.7% of our secondary respondents indicated that they used the overhead projector one or more times a week, while the corresponding percentage for college instructors was 19.5%. Almost half of the higher education respondents indicated that it never used the overhead projector.

The *filmstrip or slide projector* is more widely used at the secondary than at the higher education level. Although a majority of college language instructors uses such a projector very occasionally (58.0% of our respondents told us that they use it between one and five times a year) more than one-fifth (21.8%) does not use it at all. In contrast, 43.8% of our secondary respondents told us that they use the filmstrip or slide projector once a week or more frequently.

Secondary language teachers use the *movie projector* much more widely than do college instructors. Almost one-fifth (18.6%) of our secondary respondents told us that it used a movie projector once a week. The majority of both secondary and higher education language instructors used the movie projector fairly rarely, however: 66.3% of our secondary respondents and 57.5% of our higher education respondents told us that they used the movie projector between one and five times a year. Fully one-third of our higher education respondents does not use a movie projector at all in its language teaching.

The use of the *electronic classroom* (which we defined to our respondents as an installation where "students listen through earphones set up in a regular classroom") appears to be a dying phenomenon in American foreign language education today. More than one-third of our secondary respondents (34.4%) and almost one-fifth of our higher education respondents (18.5%) do not have electronic classrooms available to them. And of those who do, almost two-thirds of the higher education respondents (63.3%) and 42.2% of our secondary respondents told us that they do not use them at all.

We asked our respondents whether they make *individual tape recorders* (either cassette or reel) available to students for individual work. Over half of our higher education respondents (54.6%) told us that it has such an arrangement and uses it once a week or more frequently. For our secondary respondents the same level of usage was reported by 24.9% of our respondents. Almost one-half of our secondary respondents told us that it either does not have access to such equipment or that it does not use it at all. For higher education respondents the corresponding level of usage is 25.9%.

The *language laboratory* is another teaching aid that is much more widely used at the college than at the secondary level. Fully 67.8% of our secondary respondents indicated that either the language laboratory was not available to them (38.5%) or that they did not use the laboratory facilities at their disposition (29.3%). However, 22.1% of our secondary respondents told us that they used a language laboratory once a week. Almost three-quarters (73.0%) of our higher education respondents told us that they used a language laboratory once a week or more, with 24.5% indicating that they used it daily. Only 20.0% of our higher education respondents told us that they did not use the laboratory at all.

The *videotape recorder* is not widely used by the respondents in our survey. Almost 20% of both secondary and higher education language instructors told us that such equipment was not available to them. Of the secondary teachers, 65.5% said that they do not use the videotape recorder at all; for higher education instructors, the proportion is 78.6%. Slightly under one-third (32.7%) of the secondary teachers and slightly

less than one in five higher education instructors (17.0%) told us that they used the videotape recorder between one and five times per year.

Overall, the use of educational media by foreign language teachers at the secondary and higher education levels, as expressed by the returns on our survey, provided us with few surprises. The use of the tape recorder, the overhead projector, the filmstrip or slide projector, and the movie projector is made much easier by the fact that secondary foreign language classrooms tend to be those which are restricted to language teaching and where an instructor can gather materials and machines without having to make special arrangements each time a machine is to be used, as is the case for the vast majority of instructors at the college level. It is obvious to us that much vocal criticism notwithstanding, the language laboratory remains a much-used educational tool, particularly in higher education. Use of the electronic classroom, which does not permit the student to control his own program, is definitely declining. It is also heartening to note the extensive use (reported by more than half of our higher education respondents) made of individual tape recorders, which give students the same kind of control over the instructional program that they would have in a laboratory and the added flexibility which permits them to take their instructional materials with them wherever they go.

PROMOTIONAL AND OTHER PRACTICES

We asked both our secondary and our higher education respondents what sort of promotional activities they engaged in during the 1978-79 school year. For the secondary respondents, the largest proportion (58.2%) told us that it had conducted some sort of foreign language festival involving food. The second most frequently mentioned promotional practice was bulletin board displays outside the language classroom, which 55.4% of our respondents indicated that they had done. Almost 27% of our secondary respondents indicated that they had sponsored a foreign film showing and 21.4% said that they had promoted foreign language study among other school personnel; 20.6% told us that they had sponsored a foreign language assembly or other program where language students perform for the student body. Finally, 18.5% indicated to us that they had made a systematic effort to contact parents of the total school population with information about language study. Only 10% of the total secondary population indicated that they had engaged in no promotional activities whatsoever.

A substantial number of the secondary respondents is taking public relations quite seriously: almost 25% of them are doing two of the promotional exercises just listed; 22.1% are doing three, and 10.7% are doing four of them.

For college foreign language instructors, the most popular promotional activity is a foreign language film series, a play, or a performing group; 59.5% of our higher education respondents indicated having engaged in such an activity. In second place, but well behind foreign language films, is the use of a foreign language advisor's booth at college registration; 41.8% of our respondents indicated that they had done this during the 1978-79 school year. Direct mailing to incoming freshman and transfer students (with information about foreign language study) was done by 36.0% of the higher education respondents, and 27.8% told us that they had conducted a foreign language festival during the preceding academic year.

One rather extensive promotional activity which appears to be quite successful on many campuses today is the 'language day,' during which the language faculty invites high school students from surrounding school districts to spend some time on campus to discover what learning a language is like at the institution in question. Fully 30.3% of our higher education respondents told us that they had conducted such an event on their campus during the 1978-79 school year.

On college campuses, as in secondary schools, there is a fairly sizable group of individuals obviously going to great lengths to publicize programs. For example, 24.6% of our higher education respondents had publicized their programs in two of the ways just listed; 20.1% had engaged in three separate activities; and 9.4% had done so in four different ways.

Two academically oriented, yet partially recreational activities have been very much in the literature of foreign language education over the past few years: language camps and travel abroad experience. We asked our secondary and higher education respondents whether they had engaged in any such activities during the school year 1978-79. In response to our question about language camps (which we defined as "a weekend vacation or summer outing where students and teachers immerse themselves in the culture and language"), 8.2% of the secondary and 6.4% of the higher education respondents indicated that they had participated in such language camps. The most popular time for these camps appears to be on a weekend during the school year. Thus, while several school districts and institutions had excellent success with such language camps, it is clear that participation in such camps has been experienced by less than 10% of the total number of language teachers at the secondary and higher education level.

A substantially larger percentage of language instructors has had experience with traveling abroad, however. Fully 20.8% of our secondary respondents, when asked whether they had traveled abroad with students during the 1978-79 school year, responded in the affirmative, with the most popular time for taking such a trip being an academic intersession.

While the proportion of higher education language faculty taking students abroad appears to be smaller than that in the secondary school population, nonetheless, a substantial proportion (14.2%) of college language instructors travels abroad with students. Most of these trips, too, take place during academic year breaks. If one compares the proportion of instructors which has traveled abroad with its students with the proportion of teachers which indicated that it had visited the foreign culture within the past six months, one may infer that an important percentage of the travel abroad reported by teachers in our discussion above was done with groups of students. In the secondary group, for instance, 42.7% of our respondents indicated that they had been abroad within the past year. Since 20.8% of our secondary respondents have traveled abroad with students during the 1978-79 school year, one may infer that slightly under one-half of the travel abroad by American foreign language teachers at the secondary level takes place with the teacher conducting a trip for students. At the higher education level, the proportion is not nearly as high: 47.1% of our respondents told us that they had been abroad within the past year; 14.2% indicated that they had conducted a trip abroad with students during academic year 1978-79.

Summary and Conclusion

This Report has discussed a great quantity of very diverse data, some of which we hope will be useful for longitudinal studies of the foreign language teaching profession. It is our purpose in this final section to summarize only the most important of these data and draw some conclusions from them. We should mention here once again that these data should not be interpreted as representative of the foreign language teaching profession as a whole in this country, but only as representative of the Northeast Conference population. It is reasonable to believe that the individuals who take the trouble to attend the Conference or to be in communication with its secretariat are more motivated professionally and thus likely to be substantially different from other individuals who do not figure on the rolls of the Northeast Conference.

The median age of the 1,067 respondents to our survey questionnaire is between 35 and 39 years of age for secondary teachers, between 45 and 49 years of age for college instructors. Median length of employment at the present institution is about 10 years for secondary teachers, between 11 and 14 years for college instructors. About 75% of both groups hold tenured positions. Among the secondary teachers, 67% hold a master's level degree which is, in most cases today, the 'terminal degree' for secondary school teachers. Among college respondents about 67% hold a doctoral level degree, currently the accepted 'terminal degree' for college instructors. Almost all respondents to our questionnaires have engaged in some sort of professional development over the past three years. (About 20% of both secondary and higher education respondents left this question blank, however, and we suspect that a fairly large proportion of these numbers chose to do this rather than to indicate that it had engaged in no professional development, which was an available option to them on the item.) It is clear from the responses to questions regarding professional development that instructors at both the secondary and higher education levels consider travel abroad to be an important professional development experience. When asked what sort of professional development opportunities for which they felt a need, secondary respondents indicated first a desire for methods and materials of language instruction, and secondly, methods and materials for culture and civilization instruction. To the same question, college language teachers first chose "foreign languages for special purposes" (e.g., Spanish for medical personnel) and secondly, "approaches to the teaching of culture." We were alarmed that fully 18% of our higher education respondents left this last question blank, which could be interpreted as a lack of concern about professional development that could bode ill for language instruction in higher education.

We conclude from the data gathered about secondary and college language instructors that the rising median age of the teaching corps brings with it both advantages and disadvantages. It is evident from this study that the number of new teachers entering the profession is extremely small, even smaller in higher education than it is on the secondary level. It is also evident that job mobility is much reduced over what it was a few years ago, although it is clear from our data that some individuals do manage to change jobs.

The implications of this picture for individuals wishing to enter the foreign language teaching profession in the near future are clear: at the secondary level, one must almost obligatorily be able to teach two foreign languages or more, or be able to teach in

another discipline and, in addition, be prepared to handle the most difficult assignments (e.g., double-level classes). At the higher education level, one must have a second foreign language or a related discipline, as is amply documented weekly by the 'Positions Available' announcements in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* and periodically in the *MLA Job Information List — Foreign Languages*.

Despite the difficulties that exist in changing jobs, and despite the dearth of 'new blood' entering the ranks of foreign language teachers at both secondary and higher education levels, the state of morale exhibited by our respondents is quite high. For instance, in response to a question concerning possible feelings of insecurity about their job, only 11.3% of secondary respondents and 16.8% of higher education respondents expressed any insecurity at all. In response to a question inquiring about feelings of satisfaction with their job, only 8.6% of secondary respondents and 13.8% of higher education respondents expressed any degree of dissatisfaction at all. And, in response to a question about whether they planned to be teaching language two years hence, only 4.2% of secondary school teachers and 4.7% of higher education instructors indicated that they *probably* would not be teaching, although 12.5% of the former and 10.5% of the latter told us that they *possibly* would not be teaching two years hence. We conclude, therefore, that despite the chronicles of teacher 'burnout' in the popular press which depict educational personnel, particularly at the secondary level, leaving the profession in droves,[11] a relatively small proportion of Northeast Conference foreign language teachers is planning on leaving the profession in the near future. This may mean that the population under consideration here (which it must be remembered is 75% tenured) is simply adopting a 'siege mentality' which will have it ride out the current hard times for education in general and for language instruction in particular.

If this were in fact the case, our respondents would not be telling us that they were as satisfied with their jobs as in fact they did, and a larger proportion of them would be giving serious consideration to leaving the profession. We were extremely concerned to discover that those individuals who do indicate that they are planning to leave the profession tend to be the youngest ones.

Although this study was not designed as an enrollment survey, we did attempt to get some information about how much elementary school foreign language teaching is going on and about enrollment trends for both secondary schools and higher education. About 20% of secondary respondents report a FLES program at their private school or in their school district; about 19% report the existence of a bilingual program; about 3% report the existence of an immersion program. These statistics, coupled with the results of a national public opinion survey which show that more than three-quarters of the American population believe that foreign languages should be offered in the elementary school, and that 42% believe that foreign language should be *required* in elementary school,[12] would seem to indicate that American education is ripe for a renaissance of elementary school language instruction.

Both the secondary school and the higher education respondents on our survey lead

11. For example, see Sally Reed, "Teacher 'Burnout,' A Growing Hazard," *The New York Times*, Sunday, 7 January 1979, Sect. 8, p. 12.

12. Peter A. Eddy, "Attitudes Toward Foreign Language Study in American Schools and Colleges: Results of a National Survey," *ADFL Bulletin* 11, 2 (November 1979), pp. 4-9.

us to be cautiously optimistic about a reversal in the decade-long trend of plummeting language enrollments. At the secondary school almost 40% of our respondents indicate an upward trend in language enrollments over the past three years, while a little more than 20% tell us that enrollments have decreased. In higher education, almost 40% indicate that enrollments have increased over the past three years, while only 12% note a decrease over the same amount of time. College foreign language requirements are at a low ebb: only 6% of our higher education respondents report an entrance requirement, while approximately 30% inform us of a graduation requirement at their institutions.

Substantial numbers of our survey respondents report foreign language requirements included in distribution systems, individual department requirements, or foreign language requirements for specific degrees.

Our respondents indicate that some of the themes and practices over which much ink has flowed in recent years in the journals of language education appear not to have taken root in today's classrooms. Individualized foreign language instruction is one of these: only 30% of secondary and 20% of the college respondents indicated any use at all of individualized techniques, with very few respondents indicating implementation of self-paced instruction in full classes. Career education has not been adopted by the majority of language teachers: about half of our secondary respondents and about one-quarter of our higher education respondents report spending somewhere between one and five classes per year on career education. A third notion which has been eloquently elaborated upon in our journals is that of 'exploratory' foreign language learning at the secondary level; our respondents indicated that such programs exist in only a little over 25% of their schools. The higher education version of this approach, usually embodied in a course with the title such as 'Introduction to Language' is reported by only about 20% of the college respondents.

In contrast to the preceding, several much-discussed themes appear indeed to have been incorporated to an extensive degree into the teaching of a substantial proportion of respondents. One such theme is that of foreign culture teaching, which occupies between six and 20% of the total class time of about 60% of both secondary and higher education respondents to our questionnaire. A second such theme is that of communicative competence: approximately 50% of both secondary and college language instructors tell us that they spend somewhere between six and 20% of their class time on activities designed to develop communicative competence.

In the domain of testing, our respondents tell us that the listening skill is much more important in secondary and college classrooms than articles in our journal literature decrying lack of attention to the 'forgotten skill' might lead us to believe. Over 71% of our secondary respondents and over 80% of our higher education respondents told us that they tested this skill frequently. Another surprising result with regard to testing: about 40% of our respondents, in both secondary and higher education, indicate that they used standardized tests. If this is in fact the case, i.e., if this result is not due to a misunderstanding of our question or some other artifact, it is incumbent upon the foreign language teaching profession to review with great care the standardized instruments that are being used in order to bring them up to date. Many of these tests are nearly 20 years old and are seriously outdated.

Responses to our questions concerning educational media confirm our subjective impression that, on the whole, such media are much more used by secondary teachers

than they are by college instructors. This is the case for such machines as the classroom tape recorder, the overhead projector, the slide/filmstrip projector and the movie projector. We conjecture that one reason for this is the existence, for the most part, of special foreign language classrooms in high school teaching situations whereas the college language instructor is at the mercy of college-wide class-scheduling offices.

While the 'electronic classroom' appears on the wane in both high schools and colleges, the same is not true for the language laboratory, particularly at the college level. Three-quarters of the college respondents report that they use a language laboratory one or more times per week in their instruction. The same level of use is reported by only one-third of the secondary respondents. Fully one-quarter of secondary respondents and one-half the college instructors make use of individual tape recorders on which their students may play their own programs. With regard to language laboratory-like installations (where students have control over their own instructional program) there appears to be a strong statement on the part of a large minority of high school teachers and a majority of college instructors that the language laboratory can play an important part in foreign language instruction. Given this level of use of the laboratory, it is very surprising that there is no up-to-date measure of laboratory design and use available to the profession today.

The question of promoting foreign language study is very much on the profession's mind these days; the latest and one of the best examples of this preoccupation is the Northeast Conference Information Kit "The World Is Our Neighborhood."[13] Our questionnaire explored the use of a range of promotional activities employed by both secondary and college language instructors to publicize their programs. The most popular with secondary level teachers was the foreign language festival (usually involving realia and ethnic food); at the college level the largest proportion of respondents indicated that sponsoring a film, play, or performing group was a preferred method of language publicity. Almost one-third of our college respondents had participated in a 'language day,' in which local secondary school language students had been invited to the campus for the purpose of exposing them to the institution's offerings in foreign language. While a broad range of interesting methods of publicity was described by the respondents, the proportion of college and high school foreign language teachers which is commiting extensive effort to public relations appears fairly small: about one-quarter of our respondents, in both secondary and higher education, reported engaging in two different public relations activities; approximately 20% engaged in three.

A survey which covers as wide a range of topics and as broad a spectrum of respondents as this one, does not lend itself to concise conclusions. It is hoped nevertheless that the disparate picture of a portion of our profession painted above will be interesting in itself and perhaps even revealing, in a few cases, of what the rank and file is thinking and doing in its classrooms. But results such as those discussed above are not nearly as interesting viewed *alone* as they are when viewed as one 'snapshot' of an evolutionary process. It is hoped that these data, when put into perspective by similar surveys in the future, will help to trace a path of progress for foreign language education in the eighties.

13. For information about how to order "The World Is Our Neighborhood," write: Northeast Conference, Dept. K, Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753.

APPENDIX A 55 SF

1980 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

PRESENT STATUS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleague: This questionnaire should take about 15 minutes to fill out. Please use the accompanying postage paid envelope to return it to us at your very earliest convenience, and at the latest by the deadline indicated in our cover letter. Thank you in advance for your contribution to the 1980 Northeast Conference.

PLEASE DO NOT REMOVE LABEL!

The information on the mailing label to the left is attached to the questionnaire only to verify distribution and return of the forms we mail out. Neither individual respondents nor schools will be identified in any part of our analysis or in the Report itself.

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

Section A: Personal and Professional Background

—— 1. Age. (Check *one*.)
- 1 ☐ Below 25 years
- 2 ☐ 25-29 years
- 3 ☐ 30-34 years
- 4 ☐ 35-39 years
- 5 ☐ 40-44 years
- 6 ☐ 45-49 years
- 7 ☐ 50-54 years
- 8 ☐ 55-59 years
- 9 ☐ 60 years or more

—— 2. Sex. ☐ M ☐ F

—— 3. Native Language. (Check *one*.)
- ☐ English
- ☐ Other (please give name of language) _____

—— 4. How long have you been with the school district where you are now? (Check *one*.)
- 1 ☐ 0-2 years
- 2 ☐ 3-5 years
- 3 ☐ 6-10 years
- 4 ☐ 11-15 years

08 ☐ Other language (give name of language) _____
09 ☐ Education
10 ☐ Linguistics
11 ☐ An academic area not listed above (please specify)

_____

—— 9. When was the last time that you visited a country or area where the language you teach is spoken natively? (Check *one*.)
- 1 ☐ Within the past 6 months
- 2 ☐ Within the past year
- 3 ☐ Between 1-2 years ago
- 4 ☐ Between 2-5 years ago
- 5 ☐ More than 5 years ago
- 6 ☐ Never had the opportunity to visit such a country

——10. Within the past 3 years, what has been your most extensive professional development activity? (Check *one*.)
- 1 ☐ A short (1-2 day) workshop sponsored by school district
- 2 ☐ A regular college/university course offered during regular academic year
- 3 ☐ A college/university summer school course
- 4 ☐ A summer institute or other training program for teachers sponsored by college/university

5 ☐ 16-20 years
6 ☐ 21 or more years

—— 5. **How many years have you been teaching *any* subject, including foreign language? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ 0-2 years
2 ☐ 3-5 years
3 ☐ 6-10 years
4 ☐ 11-15 years
5 ☐ 16-20 years
6 ☐ 21-25 years
7 ☐ 26 or more years

—— 6. **How many years altogether have you been teaching foreign language? (Include sum total of *all* foreign language teaching experience.) (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ 0-2 years
2 ☐ 3-5 years
3 ☐ 6-10 years
4 ☐ 11-15 years
5 ☐ 16-20 years
6 ☐ 21-25 years
7 ☐ 26 or more years

—— 7. **What is the highest degree you have received? (Check *one*.)**
☐ High school diploma
☐ BA or BS
☐ MA or MS
☐ MAT (Master of Arts in Teaching)
☐ DA (Doctor of Arts) or DML (Doctor of Modern Languages)
☐ EdD or PhD

—— 8. **If you marked any degree other than high school diploma, what is the academic area in which the degree you checked in #7 was awarded? (Check *one*.)**
01 ☐ French
02 ☐ German
03 ☐ Italian
04 ☐ Latin/Greek
05 ☐ Russian
06 ☐ Spanish
07 ☐ ESL (English as a second language)

5 ☐ Other activity not listed above (describe) _____

6 ☐ I have not had the opportunity to engage in a professional development activity within the past 3 years

——11. **How was the experience referred to in #10 financed? (Check *all that apply*.)**
☐ I paid with personal funds
☐ I received a scholarship from the higher education institution providing the training
☐ My school district provided scholarship/inservice funds
☐ Money from an outside source was used (e.g. grant from a government agency or private foundation, etc.)
☐ Other (specify) _____

——12. **Of what value to your teaching was the experience you indicated in #10? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Extremely valuable
2 ☐ Of substantial value
3 ☐ Of slight value
4 ☐ Of no real value
5 ☐ Not applicable (I have not had the opportunity to engage in professional development over the past 3 years)

——13. **Of the following, what sort of inservice training would be *most* valuable to you *now*? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Workshop in methods and materials for foreign language skills
2 ☐ Workshop to improve my proficiency in the language I teach
3 ☐ Workshop to begin to learn or to develop my skills in a *second* foreign language
4 ☐ Workshop in content and methods of teaching culture/civilization
5 ☐ Workshop in content and methods of teaching global awareness
6 ☐ Other (specify) _____

Section B: Present Working Situation

——14. **Please indicate the type of school you presently teach in. (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Private school, nonsectarian

2 ☐ Private school, church-related
3 ☐ Public school
4 ☐ Other (specify) _____

——15. **During the 1979-80 school year, at what educational level(s) are you teaching? (Check *all that apply*.)**
☐ Elementary school
☐ Junior high/Middle/Intermediate school
☐ High school

——16. **Are you a full-time or part-time employee?**
☐ Full-time employee
☐ Part-time employee (indicate number of hours per week spent in classroom) _____

——17. **What language(s) are you teaching during school year 1979-80? (Check *all that apply*.)**
☐ French
☐ German
☐ Italian
☐ Latin/Greek
☐ Russian
☐ Spanish
☐ English as a second language
☐ Other (please specify) _____

——18. **If you checked more than one language above please indicate the language in which you have had the most professional training and experience. (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ French
2 ☐ German
3 ☐ Italian
4 ☐ Latin/Greek
5 ☐ Russian
6 ☐ Spanish
7 ☐ English as a second language
8 ☐ Other (specify) _____

For all questions below asking about what you do in your language classes, base your responses on your teaching of the language in which you have had the most training and experience.

——19. **In your strongest language (the one you indicated in #18 above), what is the *highest* level of language taught at your school during school year 1979-80? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Level I (First year)
☐ Decreasing 1-3% per year
☐ Decreasing more than 3% per year

——25. **Please indicate what enrollment trends have been in your strongest language (the one you identified in #18 above) over the past 3 years. (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Increasing more than 3% per year
2 ☐ Increasing 1-3% per year
3 ☐ Staying about the same
4 ☐ Decreasing 1-3 % per year
5 ☐ Decreasing more than 3% per year

——26. **Do you have tenure (or the equivalent) in your school district?**
☐ Yes
☐ No

——27. **How secure do you feel in your present position? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Very secure, no reduction in force or reorganization is likely to affect me
2 ☐ Fairly secure, reduction in force will probably not affect me
3 ☐ Fairly insecure, reduction in force is likely to affect me
4 ☐ Very insecure, reduction in force is almost certain to affect me

——28. **At present, how satisfied are you with your career as a language teacher? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Very satisfied
2 ☐ Moderately satisfied
3 ☐ Neutral
4 ☐ Moderately dissatisfied
5 ☐ Very dissatisfied

——29. **How likely is it that, two years from now, you will be teaching foreign language(s)? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ I will very probably **not** be teaching foreign language(s)
2 ☐ It is possible that I will **not** be teaching foreign language(s)
3 ☐ I will probably be teaching foreign language(s)
4 ☐ I will definitely be teaching foreign language(s)
5 ☐ I am not sure

——30. **Is there one (or more) foreign language resource teacher(s) in your building? (Typically, such a teacher is a very experi-**

2 ☐ Level II (Second year)
3 ☐ Level III (Third year)
4 ☐ Level IV (Fourth year)
5 ☐ Beyond Level IV

——20. During school year 1979-80, are you teaching any subject(s) other than a foreign language?
☐ No
☐ Yes (please name subject(s) taught: _____

——21. During school year 1979-80, what foreign languages are being taught in your school? (Check *all that apply.*)
☐ French
☐ German
☐ Italian
☐ Latin/Greek
☐ Russian
☐ Spanish
☐ English as a second language
☐ Other (please specify) _____

——22. During school year 1979-80, are you teaching a language course in which (for scheduling or other reasons) you are required to teach *more than one level of language* in the same hour in the same classroom (for example, Spanish II and III students in the same class during a single classroom hour)?
☐ Yes
☐ No

——23. During school year 1979-80, are you teaching a language course in which (for scheduling or other reasons) you are required to teach *more than one language* in the same hour in the same classroom (for example, Spanish I and German I in the same classroom during a single classroom hour)?
☐ Yes
☐ No

——24. Please estimate the *total student body* enrollment trend at your school over the past 3 years. (Check *one.*)
☐ Increasing more than 3% per year
☐ Increasing 1-3% per year
☐ Staying about the same

enced one who is given reduced class load so as to be able to help other language teachers improve their materials and techniques.)
☐ Yes
☐ No

——31. Does your school district have a foreign language coordinator? (Please check the *one* description below that best applies to your situation.)
1 ☐ No, there is no one who has any responsibility for instructional matters pertaining to foreign languages
2 ☐ Yes, there is someone who has responsibility for foreign language instruction, in addition to other language-related curriculum areas (e.g. English language arts, English as a second language, bilingual education, etc.)
3 ☐ Yes, there is someone who has responsibility for foreign language instruction, in addition to other nonlanguage-related curriculum areas (e.g. math, social studies, etc.)
4 ☐ Yes, there is a foreign language consultant who spends all of his or her time on foreign language instruction
5 ☐ Not sure

——32. To your knowledge, is it possible for you to request funding from your state department of education to finance a project in curriculum/instructional development at your school? (Check *one.*)
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Not sure

——33. If your answer to the above question was "yes," have you ever written or helped to write a proposal to obtain such funding?
1 ☐ Yes, but the proposal was turned down
2 ☐ Yes, and I have conducted (or am now conducting) my project
3 ☐ No

Section C: Language(s) Taught in the Elementary School

——34. Is there a *FLES* program in any *elementary school(s)* in your district? (FLES refers to a program in which a foreign language is taught to youngsters whose mother tongue is English.) (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Not sure

——35. Is there a *bilingual* program in any *elementary school(s)* in your district? (A bilingual program provides subject matter instruction e.g., social studies, math, etc. in the native language of minority students.) (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Not sure

——36. Is there an *immersion* program in any *elementary school(s)* in your district? (An immersion program is one in which English speaking children are taught subject matter courses in a foreign language.) (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Not sure

Section D: Current Practices

——37. Do any schools in your district offer a course in *exploratory foreign language?* (Such courses typically include information about the nature of language and how it is learned and/or involve learning a little bit of several foreign languages.) (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ No, such courses do not exist in our district
2 ☐ Yes, such a course is taught in junior high/middle school
3 ☐ Yes, such a course is taught in high school
4 ☐ Yes, such a course is taught in both junior high *and* high school
5 ☐ Don't know

——38. In what way(s) are you individualizing instruction? (Check *all that apply*.)
☐ I use self-paced instruction with one or more entire class

(Such courses typically meet for 3 or more hours per day.) (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Not sure

——42. During this past school year (1978-1979), did you invite any of the following types of people to your language classes? (Check *all that apply*.)
☐ Advanced language student(s) as teacher aides or tutors
☐ Colleague language teacher(s)
☐ Native speaker(s) from the community
☐ Foreign student(s)
☐ Other (specify)_____

——43. How frequently do you use the following types of audiovisual equipment in your Level I (first year) classes? (Check *one* for each piece of equipment). ***If you do not teach first year language courses, check here*** ☐ ***and proceed to question 44.***

—— *A. Classroom Tape Recorder* (Check *one*).
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *B. Overhead Projector* (Check *one*).
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *C. Filmstrip or Slide Projector* (Check *one*).
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *D. Movie Projector* (Check *one*).
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

as the principal mode of instruction

- ☐ I use self-paced materials (e.g. learning activity packets) *sometimes* for some classes
- ☐ I use self-paced material primarily as make-up work for absentees
- ☐ I use different instructional materials (e.g. different reading selections of comparable difficulty) with different students (classes) depending on their interests
- ☐ I do not presently individualize instruction, but would like to do so in the future
- ☐ I do not consider it feasible to individualize instruction in my situation
- ☐ Other (specify) _____

——39. **In your Level I (first year) classes, about what percentage of class time do you spend *teaching about the foreign language culture?* (Count here any instructional time whose *primary purpose* is to convey cultural information; do not include activities aimed mainly at skills development, even though they may have some cultural aspect). (Check *one*).**

1 ☐ 0% of total class time
2 ☐ Less than 5%, but some
3 ☐ 6-10% of total class time
4 ☐ 11-20% of total class time
5 ☐ 21-30% of total class time
6 ☐ More than 30%
7 ☐ Not applicable; I do not teach first year foreign language

——40. **In your Level I (first year) classes, about what percentage of class time is devoted to non-drill activities during which students are guided to "express themselves" in a communicative situation (e.g. games, simulations, role playing, etc.)? Do not include here acting out of dialogs or performance of other memorized material. (Check *one*).**

1 ☐ 0% of total class time
2 ☐ Less than 5%, but some
3 ☐ 6-10% of total class time
4 ☐ 11-20% of total class time
5 ☐ 21-30% of total class time
6 ☐ More than 30%
7 ☐ Not applicable; I do not teach first year foreign language

——41. **At some time during the 1978-79 school year, did your school offer an *intensive* course in any foreign language?**

—— ***E. Electronic Classroom (students listen through earphones set up in a regular classroom) (Check one).***

1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— ***F. Tape recorders* (reel to reel or cassette, available to students in a learning center or loaned to students for individual work) (Check one).**

1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— ***G. Language Laboratory (Check one).***

1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— ***H. Videotape Recorder* (Check *one*.)**

1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

——44. **As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their *listening comprehension* (i.e. give a test that requires the student to listen to spoken language)? (Check *one*).**

1 ☐ Always or almost always
2 ☐ Frequently
3 ☐ Occasionally
4 ☐ Infrequently
5 ☐ Never or almost never

——45. **As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their *communicative competence* (i.e. give a test that requires the student to convey meaning by speaking in a non-memorized conversational situation)? (Check *one*).**

Always or almost always
- ☐ Frequently
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Infrequently
- ☐ Never or almost never

As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their ability to do *dictation* (i.e. to write correctly material in the foreign language which is read aloud)? (Check *one*).

1 ☐ Always or almost always
2 ☐ Frequently
3 ☐ Occasionally
4 ☐ Infrequently
5 ☐ Never or almost never

——47. **As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their *knowledge/understanding of foreign language vocabulary* (e.g. by having students provide synonyms, English or foreign language equivalents, give definitions, etc.)? (Check *one*).**

1 ☐ Always or almost always
2 ☐ Frequently
3 ☐ Occasionally
4 ☐ Infrequently
5 ☐ Never or almost never

——48. **Does your school administer any standardized foreign language achievement tests in order to compare student achievement to national (or state or district) norms? (Check *one*.)**

1 ☐ No, we administer no standardized tests
2 ☐ Yes, we administer such tests every year
3 ☐ Yes, we administer such tests on an occasional basis

——49. **During the past year (1978-79) did you conduct a "language camp"? (Usually a weekend, vacation or summer outing where students and teachers immerse themselves in the culture and language.) (Check *one*.)**

1 ☐ Yes, during a weekend
2 ☐ Yes, during a school holiday
3 ☐ Yes, during summer, 1979
4 ☐ No

——50. **During the past year (1978-79) did you travel abroad with a group of students? (Check *one*.)**

1 ☐ Yes, during the regular school term
2 ☐ Yes, during one of the breaks in the school year
3 ☐ Yes, during summer, 1979
4 ☐ No

61

- ☐ American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP)
- ☐ American Association of University Professors (AAUP)
- ☐ American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
- ☐ American Federation of Teachers (AFT)
- ☐ Linguistic Society of America (LSA)
- ☐ Modern Language Association (MLA)
- ☐ National Education Association (NEA)
- ☐ Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
- ☐ Other (specify)_____
- ☐ Other (specify)_____
- ☐ No national professional organization

——54. **Please use the space below (and any supplementary sheets if necessary) to provide further information on any aspects of the language teaching program at your school that are not adequately covered in the questions above, or to make any other comments regarding matters raised in the questionnaire.**

2 ☐ Yes, during one of the breaks in the school year
3 ☐ Yes, during summer, 1979
4 ☐ No

——51. **Which of the following public relations or promotional activities for language study have you personally helped to carry out in your school? (Check *all that apply.*)**

- ☐ A foreign language festival involving serving authentic food, during or outside the school day (e.g. dinner, simulated cafe, etc.)
- ☐ A foreign language assembly or other program where language students perform for the student body in general
- ☐ Bulletin board displays *outside* the language classroom
- ☐ Sponsorship of a foreign film, visiting performing group, or speaker for school-wide audience
- ☐ Systematic effort to contact parents of the total school population with information about language study
- ☐ Systematic effort to promote language study among colleagues in other subject areas, administrators and guidance counselors
- ☐ Use of the Northeast Conference promotional kit, "The World is our Neighborhood"
- ☐ Other (specify)_____
- ☐ No promotional activities at all

——52. **How much *total classtime* during this past school year (1978-79) did you spend informing your students about the potential value of foreign language skill in today's job market (i.e. "career education")? (Check *one*.)**

1 ☐ No time at all
2 ☐ One class period or less
3 ☐ Between 1 and 5 class periods
4 ☐ Between 6 and 10 class periods
5 ☐ More than 10 class periods

——53. **Please indicate the *national* (not local or regional) professional organizations you belong to. (Check *all that apply.*)**

- ☐ American Association of Teachers of French (AATF)
- ☐ American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI)
- ☐ American Association of Teachers of German (AATG)
- ☐ American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages (AATSEEL)

THANK YOU

APPENDIX B 63

HEF

1980 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

PRESENT STATUS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleague: This questionnaire should take about 15 minutes to fill out. Please use the accompanying postage paid envelope to return it to us at your very earliest convenience, and at the latest by the deadline indicated in our cover letter. Thank you in advance for your contribution to the 1980 Northeast Conference.

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The information on the mailing label to the left is attached to the questionnaire only to verify distribution and return of the forms we mail out. Neither individual respondents nor schools will be identified in any part of our analysis or in the Report itself.

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

Section A: Personal and Professional Background

1. Age. (Check *one*.)
   - 1 ☐ Below 25 years
   - 2 ☐ 25-29 years
   - 3 ☐ 30-34 years
   - 4 ☐ 35-39 years
   - 5 ☐ 40-44 years
   - 6 ☐ 45-49 years
   - 7 ☐ 50-54 years
   - 8 ☐ 55-59 years
   - 9 ☐ 60 years or more

2. Sex. ☐ M ☐ F

3. Native Language. (Check *one*.)
   - ☐ English
   - ☐ Other (please give name of language) _____

4. How long have you taught at your present institution? (Check *one*.)
   - 1 ☐ 0-2 years
   - 2 ☐ 3-5 years
   - 3 ☐ 6-10 years
   - 4 ☐ 11-15 years

9. Within the past 3 years, what has been your most extensive professional development activity? (Check *one*.)
   - 1 ☐ A short (1-2 day) workshop sponsored by your institution
   - 2 ☐ A college/university course offered during regular academic year
   - 3 ☐ A college/university summer school course
   - 4 ☐ A summer institute or seminar involving full-time study in a group
   - 5 ☐ Sabbatical or other released time devoted to individual study
   - 6 ☐ Other activity not listed (describe) _____
   - 7 ☐ I have not had the opportunity to engage in a professional development activity within the past 3 years

10. What was the disciplinary focus of the professional development activity you indicated in #9? (Check *one*.)
    - 1 ☐ Literary
    - 2 ☐ Culture/civilization

3 ☐ Between 1-2 years ago
4 ☐ Between 2-5 years ago
5 ☐ More than 5 years ago
6 ☐ Never had the opportunity to visit such a country

2 ☐ 3-5 years
3 ☐ 6-10 years
4 ☐ 11-15 years
5 ☐ 16-20 years
6 ☐ 21 or more years

—— 5. **How many years altogether have you been teaching foreign language? (Count not only higher education teaching experience, but elementary, secondary and others.) (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ 0-2 years
2 ☐ 3-5 years
3 ☐ 6-10 years
4 ☐ 11-15 years
5 ☐ 16-20 years
6 ☐ 21-25 years
7 ☐ 26 or more years

—— 6. **What is the highest degree you received? (Check *one*.)**
BA or BS
MA or MS
☐ MAT (Master of Arts in Teaching)
☐ DA (Doctor of Arts) or DML (Doctor of Modern Languages)
☐ EdD or PhD
☐ Other (specify, e.g. foreign degrees)_____

—— 7. **What is the academic area in which the degree you checked in #6 was awarded? (Check *one*.)**
01 ☐ French
02 ☐ German
03 ☐ Italian
04 ☐ Latin/Greek
05 ☐ Russian
06 ☐ Spanish
07 ☐ ESL (English as a second language)
08 ☐ Other language (give name of language)_____
09 ☐ Education
10 ☐ Linguistics
11 ☐ An academic area not listed above (please specify)_____

8. **When was the last time that you visited a country or area where the language you teach is spoken natively? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Within the past 6 months
2 ☐ Within the past year

opment activity you indicated in #9? (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Literary
2 ☐ Culture/civilization
3 ☐ Language teaching
4 ☐ Linguistics
5 ☐ Other (explain)_____
6 ☐ Not applicable (I have not had the opportunity to engage in professional development over the past 3 years)

——11. **Of what value to your teaching was the experience you indicated in #9? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Extremely valuable
2 ☐ Of substantial value
3 ☐ Of slight value
4 ☐ Of no real value
5 ☐ Not applicable (I have not had the opportunity to engage in professional development over the past 3 years)

——12. **How was the experience referred to in #9 financed? (Check *all that apply*.)**
☐ I paid with personal funds
☐ I had sabbatical (or other salaried) leave from my institution
☐ I received a scholarship from the institution providing the experience
☐ Money from an outside source was used (e.g. grant from a government agency or private foundation, etc.)
☐ Other (specify)_____

——13. **What sort of professional development workshop/institute would be *most valuable* to you now, in light of your present and future teaching responsibilities? (Check *one*.)**
01 ☐ Methods and materials of elementary/intermediate language instruction
02 ☐ Methods/materials of intensive language instruction
03 ☐ Methods/materials of advanced language instruction
04 ☐ Approaches to teaching of literature
05 ☐ Approaches to teaching culture/civilization
06 ☐ Approaches to teaching *about* language, linguistics
07 ☐ Methods/materials for special purpose courses in language, e.g. "Spanish for health personnel," "French for businessmen," etc.
08 ☐ Methods/materials in the application of computers to foreign language instruction
09 ☐ Methods/materials in the teaching of English as a second language
10 ☐ Other (explain)

Section B: Present Working Situation

——14. **Please indicate the type of institution you presently teach in. (Check *one*.)**
- 1 ☐ Two-year college
- 2 ☐ Four-year college
- 3 ☐ University
- 4 ☐ Other (specify) _____

——15. **Are you a full-time or part-time employee?**
- ☐ Full-time employee
- ☐ Part-time employee (indicate number of hours per week spent in classroom) _____

——16. **What language(s) are you teaching during academic year 1979-80? (Check *all that apply*.)**
- ☐ French
- ☐ German
- ☐ Italian
- ☐ Latin/Greek
- ☐ Russian
- ☐ Spanish
- ☐ English as a second language
- ☐ Other (please specify) _____

——17. **If you checked more than one language above please indicate the language in which you have had the most professional training and experience. (Check *one*.)**
- 1 ☐ French
- 2 ☐ German
- 3 ☐ Italian
- 4 ☐ Latin/Greek
- 5 ☐ Russian
- 6 ☐ Spanish
- 7 ☐ English as a second language
- 8 ☐ Other (specify) _____

For all questions below asking about what you do in your language classes, base your responses on your teaching of the language in which you have had the most training and experience.

——18. **What sort of undergraduate foreign language requirement is there at your institution? (Check *all that apply*.)**
- ☐ There is no foreign language requirement
- ☐ Foreign language study is an option in a "distribution" requirement system (e.g. a series of language courses may be taken to fulfill a "communications" option)
- 1 ☐ Very satisfied
- 2 ☐ Moderately satisfied
- 3 ☐ Neutral
- 4 ☐ Moderately dissatisfied
- 5 ☐ Very dissatisfied

——24. **How likely is it that, two years from now, you will be teaching foreign language(s)? (Check *one*).**
- 1 ☐ I will very probably **not** be teaching foreign language(s)
- 2 ☐ It is possible that I will **not** be teaching foreign language(s)
- 3 ☐ I will probably be teaching foreign language(s)
- 4 ☐ I will definitely be teaching foreign language(s)
- 5 ☐ I am not sure

——25. **Have you ever received funds from a source *outside* your institution for curriculum/instructional development?**
- ☐ No
- ☐ Yes (specify) _____

——26. **Have you ever received funds from your institution for curriculum/instructional development? (Check *all that apply*).**
- ☐ No
- ☐ Yes, from the *language department*
- ☐ Yes, from sources *other than* the language department

Section C: Current Practices

——27. **Is a course in "Introduction to Language" being taught on your campus in the 1979-80 academic year? (Such courses frequently include elementary linguistics, some basic language instruction in one or more foreign languages, and are frequently intended to attract students to further study of foreign language.)**
- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

——28. **In what way(s) are you individualizing instruction? (Check *all that apply*).**
- ☐ I use self-paced instruction with one or more entire class as the principal mode of instruction
- ☐ I use self-paced materials (e.g. learning activity packets) *sometimes* for some classes
- ☐ I use self-paced materials primarily as make-up work for absentees
- ☐ I use different instructional materials (e.g. different reading

☐ Some individual departments have language requirements
☐ There is an institution-wide entrance requirement
☐ There is an institution-wide graduation requirement
☐ Other (explain) _____

——19. **Please estimate the *total student body* enrollment trend at your institution over the past 3 years. (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Increasing more than 3% per year
2 ☐ Increasing 1-3% per year
3 ☐ Staying about the same
4 ☐ Decreasing 1-3% per year
5 ☐ Decreasing more than 3% per year

——20. **Please indicate what enrollment trends have been in *your strongest* language (the one you identified in #18 above) over the past 3 years. (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Increasing more than 3% per year
2 ☐ Increasing 1-3% per year
3 ☐ Staying about the same
4 ☐ Decreasing 1-3% per year
5 ☐ Decreasing more than 3% per year

——21. **Please indicate the nature of your employment status at your present institution. (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Fixed-year contract (including year-by-year); no tenure
2 ☐ Tenure-track position; not yet tenured
3 ☐ Tenured position
4 ☐ Other (explain) _____

——22. **How secure do you feel in your present position? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Very secure, no reduction in force or reorganization is likely to affect me
2 ☐ Fairly secure, reduction in force will probably not affect me
3 ☐ Fairly insecure, reduction in force is likely to affect me
4 ☐ Very insecure, reduction in force is almost certain to affect me

——23. **At present, how satisfied are you with your career as a language teacher? (Check *one*).**

☐ I use different instructional materials (e.g., different reading selections of comparable difficulty) with different students (classes) depending on their interests
☐ I do not presently individualize instruction, but would like to do so in the future
☐ I do not consider it feasible to individualize instruction in my situation
☐ Other (specify) _____

——29. **In your first year foreign language classes, about what percentage of class time do you spend *teaching about the foreign language culture?* (Count here any instructional time whose *primary purpose* is to convey cultural information; do not include activities aimed mainly at skills development, even though they may have some cultural aspect). (Check *one*).**
1 ☐ 0% of total class time
2 ☐ Less than 5%, but some
3 ☐ 6-10% of total class time
4 ☐ 11-20% of total class time
5 ☐ 21-30% of total class time
6 ☐ More than 30%
7 ☐ Not applicable; I do not teach first year foreign language

——30. **In your first year foreign language classes, about what percentage of class time is devoted to non-drill activities during which students are guided to "express themselves" in a communicative situation (e.g. games, simulations, role playing, etc.) Do not include here acting out of dialogs or performance of other memorized material. (Check *one*).**
1 ☐ 0% of total class time
2 ☐ Less than 5%, but some
3 ☐ 6-10% of total class time
4 ☐ 11-20% of total class time
5 ☐ 21-30% of total class time
6 ☐ More than 30%
7 ☐ Not applicable; I do not teach first year foreign language

——31. **At some time during the 1978-79 academic year, (including summer) did your institution offer an *intensive* course in any foreign language? (Such courses typically meet for 3 or more hours per day). (Check *one*.)**

1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Not sure

——32. **During this past academic year (1978-79), did you invite any of the following types of people to your language classes? (Check *all that apply*).**
☐ Advanced language student(s) as teacher aides or tutors
☐ Colleague language teacher(s)
☐ Native speaker(s) from the community
☐ Foreign student(s)
☐ Other (specify)_____

——33. **How frequently do you use the following types of audiovisual equipment in your first year foreign language classes? (Check *one* for each piece of equipment). *If you do not teach first year language courses, check here* ☐ *and proceed to question 34.***

—— *A. Classroom Tape Recorder* **(Check *one*).**
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *B. Overhead Projector* **(Check *one*).**
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *C. Filmstrip or Slide Projector* **(Check *one*).**
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so.
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *D. Movie Projector* **(Check *one*).**
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *E. Electronic Classroom* **(students listen through earphones set up in a regular classroom) (Check *one*).**
1 ☐ Never at all

3 ☐ Occasionally
4 ☐ Infrequently
5 ☐ Never or almost never

——36. **As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their ability to do *dictation*** (i.e. to write correctly material in the foreign language which is read aloud)? (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Always or almost always
2 ☐ Frequently
3 ☐ Occasionally
4 ☐ Infrequently
5 ☐ Never or almost never

——37. **As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their *knowledge/understanding of foreign language vocabulary*** (e.g. by having students provide synonyms, English or foreign language equivalents, give definitions, etc.)? (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Always or almost always
2 ☐ Frequently
3 ☐ Occasionally
4 ☐ Infrequently
5 ☐ Never or almost never

——38. **Does your department administer any standardized foreign language achievement tests in order to compare student achievement to national (or state or institutional) norms? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ No, we administer no standardized tests
2 ☐ Yes, we administer such tests every year
3 ☐ Yes, we administer such tests on an occasional basis

——39. **During the past year (1978-79) did you conduct a "language camp"? (Usually a weekend, vacation or summer outing where students and teachers immerse themselves in the culture and language.) (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Yes, during a weekend
2 ☐ Yes, during a school holiday
3 ☐ Yes, during summer, 1979
4 ☐ No

——40. **During the past year (1978-79) did you travel abroad with a group of students? (Check *one*.)**
1 ☐ Yes, during the regular school term

2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *F. Tape recorders* (reel to reel or cassette, available to students in a learning center or loaned to students for individual work) (Check *one*).
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *G. Language Laboratory* (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

—— *H. Videotape Recorder* (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Not at all
2 ☐ 1 to 5 times per academic year
3 ☐ Once a week or so
4 ☐ Daily or almost daily
5 ☐ This equipment is not available to me

——34. As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their *listening comprehension* (i.e. give a test that requires the student to listen to spoken language)? (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Always or almost always
2 ☐ Frequently
3 ☐ Occasionally
4 ☐ Infrequently
5 ☐ Never or almost never

——35. As a part of the test(s) that you give your students to determine their course grades, do you actually test their *communicative competence* (i.e. give a test that requires the student to convey meaning by speaking in a non-memorized conversational situation)? (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Always or almost always
2 ☐ Frequently

group of students? (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ Yes, during the regular school term
2 ☐ Yes, during one of the breaks in the school year
3 ☐ Yes, during summer, 1979
4 ☐ No

——41. How much *total classtime* during this past school year (1978-79) did you spend informing your students about the potential value of foreign language skill in today's job market (i.e. "career education")? (Check *one*.)
1 ☐ No time at all
2 ☐ One class period or less
3 ☐ Between 1 and 5 class periods
4 ☐ Between 6 and 10 class periods
5 ☐ More than 10 class periods

——42. During academic year 1978-79, did your institution hold a "Language Day" on your campus, during which the language faculty invited high school students from your area to discover what learning a language is like at your school?
☐ Yes
☐ No

——43. During academic year 1978-79, which of the following types of promotional activities were carried out on your campus to encourage students to study languages. (Check *all that apply*.)
☐ Foreign films, plays, performing groups
☐ Foreign language festival
☐ Use of the NEC promotional kit, "The World is our Neighborhood"
☐ Mailings to incoming freshmen and transfer students
☐ Advising booth at registration
☐ Other (specify) _____
☐ No promotional activities at all

——44. Does your language department have any formal or informal arrangements with other departments on your campus to encourage the study (preferably to an advanced level) of foreign language *plus* an academic major in another field (e.g., an agreement to encourage double majors, one being a foreign language)? (Check *all that apply*.)
☐ Social sciences, including history
☐ Natural sciences
☐ Business

- ☐ Fine arts
- ☐ Humanities, including English
- ☐ Engineering
- ☐ Other (specify) _____

——45. **Please indicate the *national* (not local or regional) professional organizations you belong to. (Check *all that apply.*)**

- ☐ American Association of Teachers of French (AATF)
- ☐ American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI)
- ☐ American Association of Teachers of German (AATG)
- ☐ American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages (AATSEEL)
- ☐ American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP)
- ☐ American Association of University Professors (AAUP)
- ☐ American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
- ☐ American Federation of Teachers (AFT)
- ☐ Linguistic Society of America (LSA)
- ☐ Modern Language Association (MLA)
- ☐ National Education Association (NEA)
- ☐ Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
- ☐ Other (specify) _____
- ☐ Other (specify) _____
- ☐ No national professional organization

——46. **Please use the space below (and any supplementary sheets if necessary) to provide further information on any aspects of the language teaching program at your school that are not adequately covered in the questions above, or to make any other comments regarding matters raised in the questionnaire.**

ED191305

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Toward an Articulated Curriculum

Introduction

An examination of foreign language teaching in the United States today permits cautious optimism about the future. The level of optimism, however, is increased or decreased by the choice of factors selected to predict the future. If, for example, one focuses on the decreasing enrollment figures, which are approaching historical low points, the opportunity for optimism is somewhat limited. On the contrary, if attention is centered on positive aspects, such as increasing parental interest in foreign languages and the myriad of exciting teaching techniques developed in the seventies, the level of optimism is increased considerably. However, the purpose of this paper is not to present a litany of past accomplishments and failures. Rather it is to propose a united thrust toward articulated curricula; and should that thrust be achieved, the role of foreign language instruction in the United States in the eighties might be enhanced considerably.

Outside Factors Affecting Articulation of Curriculum

Historically, the study of a modern foreign language in American schools has never been required of all students. Consequently its position as an academic elective in the curriculum has been heavily influenced by a variety of cultural, economic, political, and social developments. The situation remains the same today, and there appear to be no indications that the future will bring about any changes. Therefore, any attempt to build an articulated foreign language curriculum in the eighties requires a brief examination of the forces that might affect the effort.

DECREASING SCHOOL POPULATION

The most obvious factor to be faced in the future is the decline in the school population. Total school enrollment will continue to decline at the elementary level until 1983, and well beyond that at the high school and college levels. The total number of high school graduates in the United States in 1984-85, for example, will be approximately 13 percent less than it was in 1978-79.[1] Moreover, the percentage of the school population enrolled in foreign language courses has been dropping steadily since 1968. Unless there is a sharp reversal in this latter trend, the consequences for the profession

1. William Van Til, *Secondary Education: School and Community*. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1978).

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and its students are indeed serious. They include among others an increase in already heavy teaching loads, a decrease in the number of advanced level courses, an increase in the number of part-time teachers, and an older and permanently certified corps of teachers with no official need to further its education.

INFLATION

Inflation constitutes a second, seemingly irreversible, trend. Along with other factors, inflation has increased the per pupil cost of education to a national estimate of more than $2,000. The cost of education, as well as that of other public services, has triggered a growing taxpayers' revolt. In June 1978, California voters approved Proposition 13 which limits property taxes to one percent of 1975 assessed valuation. After Proposition 13, over half the states initiated some movement limiting taxes, expenditures, or both. In the 1978 fall elections, 12 of 16 states passed such a measure. One of the many reasons behind this revolt is a feeling among Americans that public services, including schooling, are not delivered effectively or efficiently. Although this seems far removed from foreign language teaching, it is not difficult to foresee attempts at cutting back electives such as art, foreign languages, and music.

BACK TO BASICS

A third factor which will influence education significantly in the next decade is the widespread back to basics movement in American schools. Triggered by an alarming decrease in college entrance test scores since 1967 and a staggering nine percent annual increase in school costs during the past ten years, the movement is pressuring schools to eliminate numerous expensive 'frills' and pay primary attention to basic skills. The Eleventh Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools (1979) shows yet another slight drop in the public's overall rating of the schools, a downward trend started in 1974, but one which experts feel has come to an end. Based on information gathered during the past eleven years, Gallup has constructed the public's idea of the ideal school. Several of the requirements it regards as most essential directly reflect the back to basics movement. These requirements are as follows:

(1) Teachers should be well qualified and should be required to pass state board examinations before they are hired as well as at regular intervals thereafter.
(2) Discipline should be strict.
(3) The curriculum should emphasize the basics, particularly mathematics, English grammar and composition, civics/government, U.S. history, science, and geography.
(4) Students should be given more work to do in school and after school.
(5) Better communication should be established with parents and the community through greater use of local media and through school newsletters and publications.
(6) Courses or seminars should be organized for parents to help them help their children in school.
(7) The ideal school would give much more attention to the selection of careers than is presently the case.
(8) Schools should try to interest a majority of the residents of the school district

> in attending, at least once a year, a lecture, meeting, or social occasion held in a school building.[2]

Given the present mood of the American public, these ideals are not surprising. Even the seemingly drastic recommendation of periodic state board examinations for teachers would provide an impetus for the development of a much needed revised instrument to evaluate the proficiency of language teachers.

The growing number of American high schools adopting the International Baccalaureate Program is another indication of attempts to bolster public confidence in their curricula. The program consists of a series of vigorous courses, including a foreign language, designed to meet admissions requirements of colleges and universities throughout the world. *Foreign Language Annals* reports that twenty American schools, including public schools in Cincinnati, Milwaukee, New York City, and Wellesley, Massachusetts, are in the process of adopting the program.[3]

The influence of back to basics is also being felt among institutions of higher learning. Grade inflation and elective-ridden degree programs are causing colleges and universities to re-evaluate their curricula. Most widely affected is the general education segment normally responsible for strengthening fundamental skills. The curricular evaluation gives foreign language faculties an opportunity to demonstrate to college committees the importance of foreign languages in basic education and to request reinstating or strengthening degree requirements.

The most serious mistake to be made by the foreign language teaching profession would be to consider back to basics as an enemy and eventually use it as an excuse for declining enrollments. In the face of a totally predictable decline in school population and an equally predictable rise in school costs, foreign language teachers have no alternative but to establish their strong contribution to basic education. It is especially important to stress the vital role of languages in communication skills and in the humanities.

In addition to developing skills in the three R's, Brodinsky interprets the basics to include lifetime learning habits, good human relations, values concomitant with our democratic life-style, knowledge in the humanities and the social and natural sciences, and career education, culture appreciation, and citizenship training.[4] In an article that should be required reading for all language teachers, Schulz demonstrates the positive thinking required of us all:

> If the basics include all these skills, then foreign language study has a unique place and function in the basic curriculum. Foreign language study — with its richness of content and potential for teaching a vast field of linguistic knowledge, valuable communication skills, cultural insights, and positive attitudes and for developing memory, analytical and creative thought, and problem solving processes — belongs among the basic intellectual disciplines for all students.[5]

2. George H. Gallup, "The Eleventh Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 61, i (1979), p. 44.

3. "FL Notes." *Foreign Language Annals*, 12(1979), p. 248.

4. Ben Brodinsky, "Back to Basics: The Movement and Its Meaning." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 48(1977), pp. 522-27.

5. Renate Schulz, "Back to Basics in the Foreign Language Classroom?" *Foreign Language Annals*, 11(1978), pp. 649-50.

GLOBAL EDUCATION

Of increasing interest to the profession is the heightened emphasis that has recently been placed on global education. In the 1979 Gallup Poll mentioned previously, survey respondents were asked to determine the importance of particular subjects in the public school curriculum. This year for the first time, the list of subjects included "interdependence of nations-foreign relations" or global education. Results show that 60 percent judged this item to be "essential" while only 43 percent saw foreign language as essential."[6] The U.S. Commissioner of Education's Task Force on Education for a Global Perspective defines the concept as follows:

> Education for a global perspective occurs through learning experiences, formal or informal, which enhance the individual's ability to understand his or her condition in the community and the world. It includes the study of nations, cultures, and civilizations, including our own pluralistic society and those of other peoples, with a focus on understanding how these are all interconnected and how they change, and on the individual's responsibility in this process. It provides the individual with a realistic perspective on world issues, problems and prospects, and an awareness of the relationships between an individual's enlightened self-interest and the concerns of people throughout the world.[7]

Although the definition seemingly implies a role for foreign languages, to date, global education has been confined mostly to the social studies profession.

In an article discussing the issue, Strasheim interviews Marker on the potential relationship between foreign language and global education. The global education scholar says the following:

> If it [foreign language teaching] is simply the skill development in another language, then I think the two areas really have very little in common. On the other hand, if the emphasis in the foreign language instruction is to some considerable extent upon the way language and culture interact and influence the way one sees the world and this in turn is followed by an analysis of how language helps or hinders the ever-growing interdependence of nations, then I think we have a lot in common.[8]

There is little doubt that those in social studies will continue to assume the leadership role in global education, but the extent to which foreign languages will be involved will depend largely on the profession's willingness to cross curricular boundaries and articulate not only with itself but also with the totality of the school's program.

Language-Related Factors Affecting Articulation of Curriculum

Although Chomsky, at the 1966 Northeast Conference, expressed skepticism about the significance of linguistic and psychological insights for foreign language

6. Gallup, *op cit.*, p. 40.

7. *U.S. Commissioner of Education's Task Force on Education for a Global Perspective: Report and Recommendations* (1979), p. 3.

8. Gerald W. Marker, as quoted in Lorraine A. Strasheim, "An Issue on the Horizon: The Role of Foreign Languages in Global Education." *Foreign Language Annals*, 12(1979), p. 31.

teaching,[9] there is evidence of a relationship between language teaching on the one hand and linguistics and psychology on the other. Audio-lingual materials and classroom activities are a reflection of behaviorist psychology and descriptive linguistics. The so-called cognitive-code approach is a reflection of cognitive psychology and generative grammar.

NOTIONAL SYLLABUS

The recent work done in Western Europe on the development of notional syllabi could have an impact on foreign language teaching in the United States. Unlike the grammatical organization of content presently used in language teaching, the aim of the notional syllabus, according to Wilkins, "is to find a better way of taking account of the communicative aspects of language than is possible within the framework of a grammatical syllabus."[10] Because communication constitutes the starting point in a notional syllabus, language teaching is organized in terms of the content rather than the form of the language.

The idea itself is not a new one. In fact, in 1974, Hachette reissued a conversation and composition college text by Benamou and Carduner[11] which originally appeared in 1961 and in which the language was organized in notional categories. It is interesting to note that in the 1974 Introduction, the authors claim to have borrowed the now so-called notional categories from *La Pensée et la langue,* a 1922 work by the French grammarian, Ferdinand Brunot.

Under the auspices of the Council of Europe, two documents, *The Threshold Level*[12] and *Un Niveau Seuil,*[13] have been prepared which organize English and French respectively according to notional categories. It is important to note that neither these works nor the idea of a notional syllabus constitute an approach or a method. According to Coste, one of the authors of *Un Niveau Seuil,* the latter "is a working tool which has recently been placed at the disposition of individuals responsible for language learning programs, textbook authors, and teachers of French."[14] These works then are primarily reference tools that the profession must use selectively based on the needs of different target populations. Whatever impact these developments may have on language teaching must be tempered by two basic questions: are they pedagogically sound and can the average teacher cope with this drastically different organization of language? Most importantly, these questions must be answered by language teachers!

TESTING

Elsewhere in these *Reports*, the reader will find an entire chapter devoted to testing. It is mentioned here simply because it constitutes the most critical element in establishing

9. Noam Chomsky, "Linguistic Theory." *Language Teaching: Broader Contexts.* Northeast Conference Reports. R. G. Mead (ed.) (New York: The Conference, 1966), pp. 43-49.

10. D. A. Wilkins, *Notional Syllabuses.* (London: Oxford University Press, 1976), p. 11.

11. Michel Benamou and Jean Carduner, *Le Moulin à Paroles.* (Paris: Librairie Hachette, 1974).

12. J. A. Van Ek, *The Threshold Level.* (Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1975).

13. Daniel Coste, Janine Courtillon, Victor Ferenczi, Michel Martins-Baltar, Eliane Papo and Eddy Roulet, *Un Niveau Seuil.* (Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1976).

14. Daniel Coste, "Un Niveau Seuil" in *La Pédagogie du français langue étrangère.* ed. Ali Bouacha (Paris: Hachette, 1978), p. 105.

an articulated curriculum in the eighties. Until national tests of teacher proficiency and student achievement are revised; until publishers pay closer attention to the validity of the instruments that accompany textbooks; until teacher education programs include specific instruction in testing techniques for preservice and inservice teachers; and until classroom teachers pay attention to some basic principles of evaluation, all attempts to establish an articulated curriculum will be met with frustration. The professional literature of the seventies has included countless discussions of communication and culture, but until these two components are seriously tested, they will not constitute a viable element in the foreign language curriculum.

METHODOLOGY

There is agreement within the profession that no one method currently dominates the teaching of foreign languages. In fact it would be difficult to identify many individual teachers who practice a specific method. For the majority, a method represents vague theoretical constructs. Teachers are much more familiar with the strategies and techniques related to various methods and tend to use these based on classroom effectiveness. Thus, during the past decade, language instruction has been predicated not so much on the dominance of a particular method but rather on the eclectic selection of specific instructional activities.

There are no indications on the horizon that one approach will once again sweep the profession as did the audio-lingual method in the fifties and sixties. This may provide a greater opportunity for new and lesser-known methods to have an influence on language teaching. As teachers learn more about methods such as Community Language Learning, The Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and others,[15] they will select those ideas and activities that they deem appropriate for incorporating into their eclectic approach. The focus in the near future will be on a clear definition of minimum goals and the development of instruments to evaluate these goals. The most important aspect of methodology will be whether or not teachers select the appropriate learning activities to help the students achieve the minimum goals.

TEXTBOOKS

There is little doubt that textbooks and their content dictate what occurs in the foreign language classroom. Because publishers hope to appeal to the largest audience possible, texts in the past have often been less than precise in stating end-of-course goals. They have usually included more material than one can cover and have relied upon teachers to omit unnecessary lexical and structural elements. However, heavy preparation loads and a lack of linguistic and curricular expertise among teachers have,unfortunately, prevented this selection process. This has resulted in a page by page progression of however many chapters a teacher deems possible to cover in a scholastic year with little attention being paid to course objectives and end results.

15. These methods are described in Earl W. Stevick, *Memory Meaning and Method.* (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1976).

Recent efforts by Warriner[16] and others to influence the content of future textbooks are beginning to meet with success. Warriner claims that there is an excessive amount of grammar in beginning and intermediate texts, and is in the process of conducting a national survey to determine if teachers are in favor of spreading the corpus of grammar over three years rather than two. A recently revised edition of an elementary French text has reduced its lexical and structural content by approximately 30 percent.

An examination of texts released recently reveals that teachers in the future will be selecting from two very different types of texts: small and concise texts with highly specific objectives and limited content or large, multi-component programs offering a variety of options to the widest audience possible. Among the former is a three-level French series specifically aimed at adolescents who enroll in French in countries where there is little or no contact with the target language, where programs are limited to a few years and at most five classes per week, and where the study of French is imposed more often than not. The objectives for the entire program are to develop: minimum communicative competence permitting common oral exchanges with French speaking people, comprehension of certain types of authentic written texts, and limited writing skills. The first level focuses on limited communicative competence and the introduction of written French. The text is 125 pages long and contains 20 lessons, the first seven of which are considered basic (*leçons-rudiment*) to any further study of French. Eight other lessons provide for oral application (*leçons-activité*) of the language usually through some form of simulation. It is interesting to note that the content of these lessons is based on a notional/functional syllabus. The remaining five lessons present language in authentic readings (*leçons-anecdote*) and permit the introduction of additional grammar. The authors state that this first level should be covered in approximately 111 forty-five to fifty minute class periods.

On the opposite end of the scale, large multi-component comprehensive texts are found. The beginning level of one particular series includes a core program which provides practice in all four language skills and encourages cultural awareness. This core is intended for every student and comprises the entire first-year text of nearly 300 pages. In addition to this, the level one package includes three additional satellite programs: listening comprehension, reading, and writing — each of which is contained in one or more additional books.

It is obvious that articulation will be affected significantly by the choice of text. Districts that select large, comprehensive programs will have to work much harder at defining minimum competencies than will those which opt for small, specifically oriented programs.

Toward an Articulated Curriculum

There exist today many definitions of the term 'curriculum' ranging from the narrowest, which limits curriculum to the content being studied, to the very broad notion that curriculum includes whatever happens to the child, no matter what it is or when it

16. Helen P. Warriner, "High School Foreign Language Texts: Too Much Between the Covers to Cover." *Foreign Language Annals*, 11(1978), pp. 551-57.

occurs. The definition most often used centers on the experiences of the students but is limited to those planned and scheduled under school direction. It includes objectives, the program of studies, the method of instruction, and the evaluation of student learning. All of these elements are closely related and must be considered as a whole.

Articulation, unlike curriculum, does not represent anything concrete; rather it stands for a relationship among elements, a relationship whose responsibility is to link or put together by joints. In foreign language teaching this relationship becomes crucial because languages are taught at all levels of instruction to people of all ages. Moreover, it is rare that a foreign language course can stand by itself, unaffected by what has preceded it or not affecting what will succeed it. Articulation therefore is that relationship which can spell success or failure in a sequenced foreign language program.

A recent study dealing with the teaching of French to elementary school children in Britain concluded that there was no significant difference in achievement between the children who began the study of French at age eight and those who began it at age eleven, when all were tested at the age of sixteen.[17] In addition to questioning some of the tests used, critics of the study pointed out that many of the early beginners were eventually placed in the same classrooms with those who had initiated their study at age eleven.[18] This criticism is aimed not so much at the separate curricular elements of the program, but rather at the manner in which these elements were linked, thus pointing to the importance of articulation.

In order to improve the totality of language instruction, articulation must exist at three different levels: internally within each discrete course, sequentially linking each series of language instruction, and externally with other areas in the program of studies. In addition to the curricular elements of articulation, there is also the element of inter-personal and inter-institutional communication. Since the latter was fully discussed in the 1978 *Northeast Conference Reports*,[19] it will not be discussed here.

INTERNAL ARTICULATION

At the first level, articulation means establishing a direct link among course goals, materials and methods selected, and the evaluation of student learning. This may seem obvious, but it is the very lack of relationship among these elements that is at the root of many language teaching problems including articulation from one level to another. During the past seven years this author has used a goal-ranking instrument with numerous teachers in inservice workshops and courses. With only very few exceptions, groups of teachers identify "carrying on an everyday conversation with a native at an elementary level" as the primary goal of instruction. Usually not far behind is the goal of "reacting appropriately to everyday cultural situations in the foreign country." Yet

17. Clare Burstall, "Primary French in the Balance." *Foreign Language Annals*, 10(1977), pp. 245-52.

18. Michael Buckby, "Is Primary French Really in the Balance?" *Modern Language Journal*, 60(1976), pp. 340-46.

19. Warren C. Born, ed., *New Contents, New Teachers, New Publics*. 1978 Northeast Conference Reports. (New York: The Conference, 1978), pp. 123-34.

when asked to identify classroom activities, these same teachers admit spending little time in small group work, in culturally oriented learning activities, or in testing either communication or culture.

The primary responsibility for internal articulation rests with individual classroom teachers. They must see that course goals are clearly delineated, that selected classroom activities are based on their potential to meet the stated goals and, most important, that evaluation instruments are directly related to both the goals and the learning activities. The latter is especially crucial today when oral communication is often the primary goal and yet the one least tested.

Due to very heavy teaching loads, teachers have to rely on available texts to help them achieve this articulation. Fortunately some textbooks published recently do an excellent job of coordinating goals, learning activities, and evaluation. Others, however, still use communication and culture as a façade. A thorough examination of a recently published text revealed that the many communicative and cultural activities in the text were poorly articulated with the accompanying tests, which evaluated discrete grammar items almost exclusively.

Internal articulation is not only the responsibility of teachers and textbook publishers but also of teacher education programs. Future teachers must be taught not so much a specific approach as a proper balance and articulation among goals, learning activities, and evaluation. This can be accomplished only if teacher education programs allocate more time to goal formulation and the preparation of valid testing instruments. Thus, the first step in establishing an articulated curriculum is to link these three elements properly. Without this internal consistency, all further attempts to provide articulation are destined to failure.

SEQUENTIAL ARTICULATION

The second level of articulation deals with the movement of students from one course or grade level to another. It represents differing degrees of complexity depending on the nature of the courses being articulated as well as on the number of schools involved. In all cases, however, one basic principle should prevail: that of building upon the prior accomplishments of the students. Language sequences have traditionally been built on the principle of looking ahead, that is, the purpose of level one was to prepare for level two, that of level two for level three, and so forth. But as foreign language learning options increase, the only viable approach to articulation is for each teacher to be informed of past student achivement and build on that achievement whenever appropriate.

One School. Within the same school or college, curricular articulation must go beyond several individuals agreeing to a general set of nebulous goals or the number of units to be covered at each level, especially since in the latter case, student achievement and units covered are not necessarily equitable. If articulation is to be genuine, it must include in-depth textbook evaluation and selection, the identification of a core or

minimum set of objectives, and the identification or construction of instruments to test this core.

Since virtually every beginning and intermediate course uses a textbook series as a base, it is crucial that sufficient time be allocated for an in-depth evaluation and selection process in which all staff members participate. The most comprehensive and systematic instrument available for guiding textbook evaluation and selection is a recent work by Johnson.[20] The instrument considers both text content and factors beyond content, and contains several sets of questions to help teachers find the most appropriate text.

The next step in achieving articulation is for the faculty to identify a minimum set of objectives for each course. Depending on the text selected, the identification process will range from simple to complex: simple if the text itself is minimal in scope and complex if it has broad goals and numerous options.

Finally, teachers must agree on some common instrument(s) to evaluate the core objectives. These may be available with the selected text or may have to be developed locally. In either case they should be checked at least for their validity. Once these three recommendations have been carried out, articulation within a school should improve considerably because teachers will be using the 'best text possible,' and information shared from one level to another will be in terms of student performance rather than teacher performance.

Several Schools. Articulation involving more than one school naturally complicates matters even if the schools belong to the same district. There is usually less communication among teachers, and budget constraints have been responsible for a rapidly declining number of systemwide coordinators. Since most six-year foreign language sequences are initiated prior to high school, it is important that the transition to high school foreign language study be smooth. If not, the program may be affected by growing attrition rates. The most serious articulation problems between these two levels usually occur because of a lack of understanding and respect. These people-related problems are not easily resolved, and it is often best to alleviate them through curricular means. The easiest way is to assure the use of an identical textbook series in all beginning and intermediate classes throughout the district. Then, it would be important to identify the same minimal objectives for beginning levels. Limiting the program similarity to the minimal objectives provides an opportunity for both the middle/junior high school and the high school to tailor the program to the needs of their students.

The final step must be to develop testing instruments to measure achievement of the minimum goals. We simply cannot continue our articulation attempts without proper

20. Carl H. Johnson, "Choosing Materials That Do the Job," in *Building on Experience - Building for Success*, ed. June K. Phillips, (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Co., 1979), pp. 67-92.

evaluation instruments agreed upon by teachers at both the exit and entry points. Establishing minimum competencies, as well as developing accompanying tests, would not only improve articulation but also go a long way in decreasing the alarming attrition rates between elementary and intermediate levels of instruction. In fact, if we did a better job of articulating these first two levels, enrollments at advanced levels would probably take care of themselves. It is only common sense to show primary concern for first and second year courses since they constitute at least 80 percent of the total foreign language enrollment.

School and University. Articulation between school and university is a complex matter. Their goals are different, they operate independently of each other, and the student population in postsecondary schools is not usually limited to specific geographical boundaries. In the area of foreign languages, dialogue between the two is at best superficial and the equating of one year of high school study to one college semester is far too simplistic. In fact, the latter is partially responsible for the university's general lack of respect for secondary school instruction.

Articulation between high school and college language programs is theoretically possible especially at beginning and intermediate levels since the content of these courses is not vastly different. Although some colleges place greater emphasis on the structure of language, many college textbooks today reflect the communicative and cultural orientation of high school programs. Unfortunately, these differences and similarities are not always evident to both parties; therefore, the first step in articulation must be an exchange of minimum competencies for beginning and intermediate courses, provided that these exist. If the required competencies are similar, then there should be little difficulty in articulating the two programs. It would be a matter of identifying, via a common examination, those students who have attained the minimum goals. Should the desired competencies differ, however, articulation becomes a serious problem. In these instances, universities should at least make known which skills are to be emphasized in their placement tests.

Beyond School. Articulation at state and national levels is seemingly impossible in an educational system based on local control. However, recent events in American education, such as minimum competency testing and voter efforts to shift school financing from local to state taxes, are indications of greater centralization in the future. In the area of foreign language teaching, many states have established sets of general goals for language learning. This is a laudable beginning, but in many cases these goals eventually have to be translated for specific classroom use. This is where the national AAT's must take the initiative. Even though language may be learned for different purposes, there has to exist a set of minimum competencies that is applicable at least to the first year of study. National tests could then be developed to evaluate these competencies, and schools and colleges would have the option to use them for either entry or exit purposes.

EXTERNAL ARTICULATION

The foreign language curriculum constitutes only a small portion of the total school and university program of studies. The courses exist because they contribute to the total education of an individual and for that reason they must establish visible relationships with other components of the curriculum. This is especially true in public schools, where administrators have often manifested a negative or, at best, neutral attitude toward foreign languages. A recent study by De Filippis[21] shows that only 38 percent of a group of Pennsylvania superintendents saw a direct relationship between foreign language study and the liberal arts curriculum and only 45 percent of them see it as vital to the national interest.

Two recent developments discussed earlier, back to basics and global education, provide the profession with unique opportunities to demonstrate external articulation. We have claimed for years that the study of foreign languages is an asset to native language skills, yet there exists virtually no research to substantiate the claim.[22] There is a definite need for tightly controlled research in this area, especially in high schools and colleges. Whatever the results, the very attempt to relate foreign language study to other segments of the curriculum would be an important step in external articulation.

In the elementary school program there are countless opportunities to articulate with the contents of language arts, reading, mathematics, social studies, art, and music. However, this can only be done by someone who is familiar with the elementary school curriculum and population, not by a foreign language specialist trained to teach at the secondary level. In this area Woodruff[23] has proposed incorporating occasional foreign language units in the elementary school language arts curriculum, and the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction is in the process of developing such units to be piloted in the primary grades.[24]

If foreign languages are to play any role whatsoever in global education there is a need for an active relationship with the social studies. The foreign language teacher cannot remain isolated and still claim a role in global education. Goals need to be revised, and units need to be developed and evaluated jointly by language and social studies teachers. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and the National Council for the Social Studies have demonstrated the beginnings of this articulation by issuing a joint position paper on the subject.[25] But this is only the beginning of a process that must eventually reach the classroom implementation stage.

21. Dominick De Filippis, "Views of Secondary School Superintendents on Foreign Language Study: A Support Constraint Analysis." *Foreign Language Annals,* 12(1979), pp. 139-44.

22. Peter A. Eddy, "Does Foreign Language Study Aid Native Language Development?" *ERIC/CLL News Bulletin* (November, 1978).

23. Melba D. Woodruff, "Foreign Language Arts: Process and Content." Unpublished paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, San Francisco, November 1977.

24. This research is being conducted through a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities and directed by Walter H. Bartz, Indiana State Foreign Language Consultant.

25. Recommendations submitted to the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies submitted jointly by the National Council For the Social Studies and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. *Foreign Language Annals,* 12(1979), pp. 383-86.

In postsecondary schools, external articulation is primarily manifested especially in interdisciplinary courses and service programs. Kelly[26] has discussed the former extensively, but it is important to point out that the most successful interdisciplinary courses require careful articulation lest they degenerate into courses where the professors involved take turns teaching their own specialty. Language service programs for business, social work, health services, and other fields must establish external articulation via needs assessment and evaluation. Foreign language departments offering courses for business majors, for example, must structure these courses on the basis of needs assessments developed jointly by foreign language and business departments.

Looking to the Future

Due to what futurists call 'system breaks' (a world war, a depression, a change in the control of education), it is very difficult to predict the future with great accuracy. Nevertheless, in light of what is known about the present status of foreign language teaching, as well as current trends in education and society in general, it is possible to venture some thoughts concerning the future. In doing so, we will follow the example of Van Til in *Secondary Education: School and Community*. He describes different scenarios which are within the range of reasonably foreseeable possibilities. He defines scenario as "a way of probing possibilities for the future by setting forth some hypothetical events. It is a statement of what might possibly happen, not a prediction of what will happen. It does not represent what we want to happen; it is a description of what might occur."[27] The two scenarios will be entitled 'somewhat pessimistic' and 'somewhat optimistic.'

A SOMEWHAT PESSIMISTIC SCENARIO

(1) Inflation has skyrocketed, and the public continues to lose confidence in its education system. School budgets are rejected with regularity, and education is supported at a minimum level. Schools and postsecondary institutions refuse to change

26. Thomas E. Kelly, "Interdisciplinary Studies." in *Responding to New Realities*. ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis, (Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Co., 1974), pp. 129-60.
27. Van Til. *op. cit.*

their traditional role and are waging a futile struggle against a declining population.

(2) Foreign language programs as well as art and music are nonexistent in elementary schools. Lack of funds has phased out once exciting elementary school immersion programs. Federal funding for bilingual programs has ceased and local officials find it impossible to maintain them. This results in frequent demonstrations by minority groups.

(3) Only isolated school districts can afford to maintain foreign language programs in middle or junior high schools. But even there, the highly organized teaching staff is on the defensive and makes little or no effort to articulate its program with the high school. In fact, last year, only high school programs were permitted to buy new textbooks, leaving the middle and junior high schools with their old texts and a drastically different program of studies.

(4) High school foreign language enrollment has dropped below 15 percent of the total school population. Latin is virtually nonexistent, French and German continue to experience precipitous declines. Spanish is still able to maintain full-time teachers, but it is beginning to experience a backlash from the elimination of bilingual programs.

(5) Language teachers have unbearable loads with more than 60 percent of them teaching in their minor area as well. Attrition has trimmed most programs to two years, and where advanced levels of instruction do exist, almost all of them are combined level classes.

(6) Since fewer than 10 percent of all language students continue to study the foreign language beyond the tenth grade, articulation with postsecondary schools is at a standstill. Most of these students who do decide to study the same language after high school end up starting it over again.

(7) The average age for secondary foreign language teachers is over 40. More than 90 percent are tenured or hold permanent teaching certificates and are under no obligation to renew or further their studies. Their inservice education is limited to what is mandated in their negotiated contracts. Since the value of the dollar has continued to decline abroad, very few teachers can afford to travel. This leaves a majority of teachers who, for years, have not had a face-to-face conversation with a native of the target language.

(8) Due to the lack of articulation with high schools, community college programs are mostly limited to beginning and intermediate levels of instruction. In addition, they are experiencing articulation problems with four-year institutions that are refusing to accept the work done in the few advanced courses that do exist. Their valiant attempts to provide career-oriented language instruction are met with fierce competition from commercial language schools which have ample funds to advertise their instruction.

(9) Language requirements for admission and graduation at colleges and universities exist only at elite private institutions. Only language departments and a few others maintain a language requirement for advanced degrees. All others require computer skills instead.

(10) College and university foreign language departments make up their own placement tests for entering freshmen. Since they are usually written tests, most incoming students with a strong oral foreign language background end up starting anew. At best, they are placed in a hodgepodge second-semester course.

(11) Teacher training programs produce a very limited number of foreign language teachers, and those trained are often the least proficient foreign language majors. No proficiency examination is required, and schools of education accept these students because of drastically low credit-hour production.

(12) Since their training has been limited to literature, language majors, including those with advanced degrees, often join high school dropouts in the lines of the unemployed.

A SOMEWHAT OPTIMISTIC SCENARIO

(1) Inflation has been curbed due to the development of new energy sources within the country. America has relinquished its reliance on local funding for public schools and has placed heavy responsibility for school support at the state and national levels. This has enabled schools to cope with the problem of declining enrollments. Empty school buildings and extra staff have been assigned to a growing program of continuing education aimed at the general public and especially at the retired population which has increased considerably. Because more adults are now involved with schooling throughout their lives, there has been an increasing faith in both programs and teachers.

(2) Foreign languages have demonstrated their role in basic education; some school districts even require it for high school graduation. There has been increased public support for FLES programs and many parent-teacher organizations have initiated before and after school programs. In a growing number of locations this has moved schools to offer foreign languages as part of the elementary school curriculum. The profession has done an excellent job of promoting the value of two-way bilingual programs and language-switch or immersion programs. This has resulted in the establishment of such programs in many cities, especially large metropolitan areas. A new concept called 'foreign language arts' has become very popular in elementary schools. It consists of periodic short-term units integrated in the elementary school language arts program to help students learn how to learn another language and another culture.

(3) A consortium of schools and universities, in cooperation with the national AAT's, has recently completed its task of defining minimum competencies for beginning and intermediate levels of instruction and has developed testing instruments for these competencies. This has reduced attrition significantly and solved many of the former articulation problems. These minimum competencies are beginning to constitute the core language program at all age levels of instruction.

(4) Foreign language programs are flourishing in middle and junior high schools. This is due in part to the above and also to research which has shown a significantly positive relationship between foreign language study and success in English skills. Faculties have wisely limited the program of studies to the beginning level competencies, making room for interdisciplinary units with other areas, especially social studies.

(5) High schools now enroll over 30 percent of the school population in foreign language classes. Once students pass the core proficiency examination they can select from a variety of interest-centered offerings, including college preparatory and career-oriented courses. Magnet schools for language and international studies have been established in many large metropolitan areas. Students at these schools have an oppor-

tunity to study African, Near-Eastern, and Oriental languages, as well as the commonly-taught ones. The curriculum includes many culture and civilization offerings, multicultural courses, and courses dealing with the interdependence of nations. Students may travel abroad and participate in community life for periods ranging from one month to a full semester; inexpensive transportation is provided by military planes no longer required for defense purposes.

(6) Community colleges have developed highly successful career-oriented programs to follow the core sequence. In addition, through a well developed continuing education program, they are involved in providing intensive language instruction to a large segment of the adult population interested in travel abroad.

(7) Colleges and universities require proficiency in the established core competencies for graduation. Some even require it for admission. Many universities have reinstated a reading requirement for advanced degrees, and much of this instruction is conducted through computer assisted instruction. Departments are making clear distinctions between programs for majors and those designed for students studying foreign languages for other purposes.

(8) Teacher education departments are implementing new certification standards that require all potential language teachers to spend at least one semester abroad and pass a recently developed teacher proficiency examination stressing both linguistic and pedagogical skills. In addition, preservice teachers must be involved in multiple field experiences throughout their training program.

Conclusion

A close examination of the two scenarios reveals that the future of foreign language teaching in the United States is still very much in the hands of the profession. Even if an external factor such as inflation does become serious, the profession must show unity and demonstrate its ability to realize the optimistic predictions made above. One of the most significant traits of professional unity is an articulated curriculum that must demonstrate the following strengths:

(1) internal strength achieved through the articulation of objectives, learning activities, and end-of-course tests;
(2) sequential strength achieved through the use of minimum competencies to articulate the movement of students from one level to another;
(3) external strength achieved through cooperative articulation with the other components of basic education.

This articulated curriculum will not only act as a deterrent to possible negative forces, but also will increase significantly the potential for the future.

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Competence in a Foreign Language: A Valuable Adjunct Skill in the Eighties?

Introduction

This is a Report on one of the ways that competence in a foreign language may be valuable to Americans in the coming decade and beyond. It deals with the possible value of competence in foreign languages as an adjunct skill in a wide variety of kinds of work both at home and abroad. There are three main points made here: (1) no one is interested in mere credits accumulated on transcripts or mere numbers of semesters or years of 'taking' a language; only real *competence* in a foreign language will have any value; (2) with the exception of a very few jobs available for those who are exceptionally well qualified, there will be few employment opportunities for translators and interpreters and even these positions will require specialized knowledge of specific fields; (3) on the other hand, *there are predictions that there will be interesting opportunities for employment in a wide variety of kinds of work for those who have a real competence in a foreign language and a sound training in a specialized field whether it be in commerce, in engineering, in banking, or in any one of a large number of other fields.*

The rest of this Report is organized as follows: (1) *Sources;* (2) *The Present Situation in this Country;* (3) *Likely Changes in the Eighties;* (4) *Consequences for the Teaching of Foreign Languages in American Schools and Colleges.* There is, inevitably, some overlap among these parts.

This Report deals primarily with the role of foreign languages in *international business,* broadly defined so as to include specifically the impact of a changing world economy on our whole national economy and, therefore, on aspects of American business that are only indirectly involved in international commerce. This Report deals only incidentally with the likely demand for knowledge of various foreign languages in such purely domestic domains as social services, medicine, education, and tourism, and with the use of English as a second language in international business.

Sources

The principal sources on which this Report is based are the following:

(1) *Languages for the World of Work:* Final Report, Project R-49-99, by Ernest J. Wilkins, Ph.D., Project Director, and M. Rex Arnett, Associate Project Director; Sponsored by the Department of Education, State of Wyoming, Funded by the Divi-

sion of Manpower Development and Training, United States Office of Education; Olympus Research Corporation, 1670 East 1300 South, Salt Lake City, Utah 84104, June 1976, abbreviated here as LWOW [This is a lengthy publication of some 350 pages (mimeographed, double-spaced) containing, among others, detailed treatments of "Languages for Government Service Careers" and "Foreign Languages in Business and Industry"];

(2) *Business and International Education:* A Report Submitted by the Task Force on Business and International Education to the Government/Academic Interface Committee, International Education Project, American Council on Education; published by: International Education Project, American Council on Education, One DuPont Circle, Washington, D. C. 20036, May 1977, abbreviated here as BAIE; and

(3) *Language in Education: Theory and Practice: 16: Foreign Languages, English as a Second/Foreign Language, and the U.S. Multinational Corporation,* by Marianne Inman, prepared by ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, published by the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 North Kent Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209, May 1978, abbreviated here as LETP.

The Present Situation in this Country

In *Business and International Education* (BAIE) the following *Overview* summarizes much of what we in foreign language teaching must bear in mind as we plan for the future:

> The magnitude of the impact of international firms on the U.S. economy is not generally appreciated. One should note first of all that total U.S. exports have recently passed $100 billion per year and that total foreign direct investment by U.S. companies has also recently passed the $100 billion mark. Secondly, a large number of industries have very significant percentages of their operations overseas. In 1974, the U.S. drug industry, for example, had 31% of its operations abroad; farm machinery - 27%; construction machinery - 27%; tires - 22%; office machinery - 20%; soaps and detergents - 20%; motor vehicles - 18%; soft drinks - 18%; etc.
>
> Of the 500 largest U.S. industrial corporations, at least 25 make more than 50% of their profits from their international operations. In 1974, these included International Harvester - 75%; Libby McNeill and Libby - 62%; Gillette - 61%; Otis Elevator - 60%; Pfizer - 60%; Coca Cola - 59%; Dow Chemical - 57%; Uniroyal - 57%; American Standard - 57%; IBM - 54%; and most of the major oil companies.
>
> In the other direction, there is a rapid growth of foreign investment in the U.S. A recent survey by the U.S. Department of Commerce revealed that in 1974, there was a total of $26.5 billion of direct foreign investment in the U.S., involving approximately 10,000 companies, employing over one million people and with total sales of $147 billion. [See the note following this quoted material.]
>
> It is of overwhelming importance and should therefore be clarified at the outset to note that, in the context of this report, international business is *not* confined to doing business within foreign countries. In so far as the number of businessmen is concerned, this is only a small portion of the whole. International business includes all aspects of exporting and importing goods and services in addition to the operation of overseas offices, manufacturing and processing plants, mining operations, etc.

> *Thus, when one speaks of educating or training people for international business, one refers to all those individuals whose job can be better performed if they are familiar with the economy, politics or culture of one or more foreign countries, or if they have understanding of international politics, economics, finance or transportation* [emphasis added]. This includes a wide variety of people who work in various capacities in different types of firms, yet never leave the United States. Their business is affected by competition from imports, or utilizes imported parts or services; they correspond with foreign firms; they meet and deal with visiting foreign businessmen or government officials; their work entails an understanding of the foreign sales or foreign operations of their company; they must make decisions which affect, indirectly, the foreign sales or operations of their company; they must fully understand the environment in which their foreign operations are located in order to communicate, in the complete sense of the term, with the company's overseas personnel.
>
> Thus it is seen that the need for international education for the business world is not restricted to the 35,000 business men who live overseas, nor to the people who work in the U.S. offices of the 6,000 large companies which have overseas operations, nor to the 20,000 firms which engage in exporting. International business and its indirect effects have become a pervasive factor in the U.S. business scene. It is difficult to point to a firm of any size which is not involved in or affected by some aspect of international business.
>
> It is also clear that the large number of individuals working in the business world come from a wide variety of educational backgrounds. A minority of them are trained in business schools. They enter business with degrees in the arts, or sciences, from engineering or from one of the various other professional schools. (Pp. 9-10)

(Needless to say, the figures cited here are not up to date. They are, however, illustrative of a situation that many of our fellow countrymen do not yet perceive clearly. One recent figure will illustrate how much change can occur in a relatively short time: in 1977, it is reported that "Foreign Direct Investment in the United States" was $34.1 billion, an increase of $7.6 billion in three years. [From: *Survey of Current Business*, August, 1978.])

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN GOVERNMENT AND BUSINESS TODAY

The studies reported in *Languages for the World of Work* (LWOW) show that there are already a surprisingly large number of jobs in this country in government and business for which a knowledge of a foreign language is "desirable." That is to say that the number of jobs for which competence in a foreign language is *required* is not large at the present time, but there are more positions for which competence in a foreign language is an advantage than many would have thought. In the Federal Government:

> Except for the Defense Department and the Central Intelligence Agency where such information is classified, we have been able to document the current number of jobs that are available in which language skills are needed (approximately 18,600). In addition, *many jobs exist for which employability is enhanced by a candidate's knowledge of foreign languages, although it may not be a prerequisite for employment* [emphasis added]. An unexpected finding was that far more jobs exist in the government in not so obvious departments than was presumed at the beginning of the study. (LWOW, pp. 1-4 and 5)*

*This page referral means "Section 1, pages 4 and 5." All further page references in the LWOW document can be interpreted in like manner.

The authors of LWOW later state (p. 1-22) that by "many jobs" they mean "at least twice as many" jobs as *require* knowledge of a foreign language. In business and industry:

> More than six thousand firms were surveyed, with a respondent ratio of approximately 23 percent; and more than sixty thousand jobs where language was *required* [emphasis added] were reported by these companies.
>
> One can reasonably assume that among the nonrespondents, and among other companies which were not surveyed, there would be an additional large number of jobs for which language training is essential or desirable. (LWOW, p. 1-7)

The authors state elsewhere that "it does seem fairly safe to suppose that more than 150,000 employee positions in our major file list of [5,640] companies require some language proficiency" (LWOW, p. 5-52). They conclude that "while the percentage of the total labor force in which language is needful or helpful is not large, the total number of positions identified by respondents, together with those which may be inferred from the data, is encouraging" (LWOW, p. 5-84).

COMPETENCE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES: AN ADJUNCT SKILL

Both in government and in business there is universal agreement that competence in one or more foreign languages is valuable as an *adjunct skill* and that there are practically no jobs for people who have *only* foreign languages to offer. There is also general agreement that in the immediate future there are going to be more opportunities for interesting employment for people who have such an adjunct skill. In a survey of American businesses, to determine

> which professional and technical fields . . . might best be combined to most advantage with language training to enhance employability . . . the degree of preference which manifests itself rather strongly in the categories of business administration and management, marketing sales, and engineering is striking. Moderate demand is seen for secretarial skills, finance, international relations, and accounting, and then there is a rather sharp drop for the other fields. Almost of no significance are the areas of psychology, library skills, cultural studies, public administration, sociology, political science, and fine arts. . . (LWOW, pp. 1-16 and 17).

In government, again, it is clear that although the total number of jobs available is smaller than in the recent past there are numerous openings for those who have foreign language competence in addition to primary professional qualifications. It is especially interesting to note the statement made by the authors of LWOW that "in virtually every interview with U.S. government agencies, the person interviewed stated that if all other job skills and experience were equal, the person with a foreign language ability would get the job" (LWOW, p. 4-35). At the same time, they state that "there are almost no employment areas where the sole ability to manipulate a language is all that is required" (p. 4-35). They make the further point that even in the two major agencies of the Federal Government that do use large numbers of people whose primary professional qualification is competence in foreign languages "expertise in other areas greatly enhances the employability of a candidate" (p. 4-73).

Insofar as salary is concerned in business, it seems that competence in foreign

languages is not generally rewarded in a direct and specific way; on the other hand, it may have a significant effect on salary and promotions if it enhances the employee's performance of his or her job (LWOW, p. 5-56).

Even the export management companies, of which there are a large number in this country and which handle the export business of a great many American companies, "should be considered to be a good potential employment field for foreign language majors only if the applicants also have highly developed skills in some aspect of foreign trade" (LWOW, p. 5-47). Insofar as "smaller companies . . . whose chief function abroad is marketing" are concerned, they "need second and third language competency more than the larger corporations because they do not have large subsidiary offices staffed by foreign nationals" (LWOW, p. 1-10).

However, it seems clear that American companies in general have not worked out and adopted a policy to ensure that their employees working abroad have adequate competence in foreign languages and cultures. Although there is evidence that there is an increasing need for foreign language competence in American business and although most companies recognize that such competence is "an extremely significant factor in adaptation after the employee arrives" at his post abroad, the authors of LWOW conclude that "until competition forces a change in policy, many American companies will be represented by personnel abroad who expect others to do business in English" (p. 1-8).

It is instructive to inspect the list of characteristics that, according to the authors of LWOW, are typical of American business executives overseas:

(1) They are highly motivated to work abroad;
(2) Their reasons for wanting to work abroad are serious;
(3) They are highly skilled professionals;
(4) They have impressive formal education and experience;
(5) Their families actively support them and adjust easily to life abroad;
(6) They can cope with unusual circumstances, and they are flexible and tolerant;
(7) *They are able to achieve real empathy into other cultures;*
(8) *They are able to communicate, both linguistically and culturally, with the foreigners with whom they work.*

[Emphasis added in (7) and (8).

The authors observe that although all of these characteristics are not necessarily required of each and every one of the American executives sent abroad, the list is generally applicable to the category as a whole and that individuals would do well to ponder this list before accepting an assignment outside the United States because "not everyone should accept an assignment abroad" (p. 5-36).

Within the United States there is an increasing need for personnel competent in another language in a wide variety of services: law enforcement, social work, employment placement, medical services, tourism, etc. The greatest need is for persons who are competent in Spanish in addition to their primary professional qualifications, but there is also a need for people who are competent in Chinese, French, German, Italian, Polish, and other languages. Ever more numerous special courses and materials have been appearing to meet the needs of persons already engaged in such work. (LWOW, p. 6-15)

IMPORTANCE OF COMPETENCE

In all three of the sources used for this Report it is made clear that everyone outside the academic world — in business and in government — is dissatisfied with the language training typical of American schools at all levels. Time and time again the point is made that what is needed in the 'real world' is real *competence,* not merely credits or semesters accumulated on a transcript. It is the case that even the great majority of those who have majored in a foreign language at the college or university level do not possess the kind of simple competence, the sort of ability actually to use the language, that alone is useful in the workaday world. It is even the case that in the International M.B.A. program at the University of Dallas, "it soon became apparent that most foreign language majors with a B.A. degree are not fluent enough to use their foreign language as a working tool" (Helmut A. Merklein, quoted in LETP, p. 17). In addition, the procedures now used to evaluate achievement in the mastery of a foreign language are neither helpful nor uniform; the suggestion has been made that it would be useful for all concerned if a uniform system of absolute ratings — perhaps, for speaking and reading, the system designed and used by the Foreign Service Institute — were used to report the student's ability to understand, speak, read and write his or her foreign language or languages (LWOW, p. 4-6). There remains, of course, the need to define clearly what we should all mean exactly by *competence.* There seems to be a consensus among all those who emphasize the need for competence that it ought to be defined in terms of the ability to perform in specified ways. (Cf. LETP, p. 22)

Partly because of this situation, the United States government spends millions of dollars each year on language training that is in a sense remedial (LWOW, p. 5-60).

Another point that is made forcefully in LWOW is that "on the whole, the government is far more efficient in the training of its personnel in foreign languages than are commercial language schools, public schools, junior and senior colleges, and universities. Government training is also more efficient, generally, than the in-house training done by business and industry" (p. 1-5). It is also true that "the government, including the military, has a long history of systematic performance rating for its professional and classified personnel. When language becomes a factor in a person's job, it too is systematically rated and updated. While industrial supervision often includes job rating and evaluation, this study uncovered virtually no instance of a company which formally rated the language skills of its personnel, even where the language was crucial to job performance" (LWOW, p. 1-10). What is important in the present context is to emphasize the fact that there already exists in the Federal Government a body of experience that may well be directly relevant to the attempts the nation's schools may be making in the near future to modify the foreign language instruction they offer in such a way as to make it meet society's needs:

> Unlike business and industry, almost every language training unit of the United States government maintains and uses a proficiency rating system highly relevant to the training aims or purposes. During the training period, enrollees are constantly monitored and evaluated in terms of progress toward the preselected level of proficiency as a goal. Naturally, these levels are described in "work terms" or in other words in terms of demonstrable performance in the target language that is directly

> related to the career and job performance expected of the individual candidates when they are placed in a foreign or domestic assignment to employ the language as part of their job (LWOW, p. 3-4).

The authors state that they are unable to report much "emulation of successful government training methods by colleges and universities for students seeking dual preparation in languages and careers" (LWOW, p. 4-4).

There is evidence that at least some of those responsible for hiring in firms that are involved in international commerce value highly success in learning one foreign language as proof of an ability to learn languages, because in many kinds of work people are frequently transferred from one post to another, where they have to knit themselves into a new society and learn a new language with as much dispatch as possible (BAIE, pp. 81 and 132).

There is a discernible trend toward explicitly valuing cultural awareness training (LWOW, p. 2-6). The author of LETP cites Gary E. Lloyd, in an article entitled "An International Career," in the *Journal of College Placement* (32, 3: 53-57, 1972), as her source for the statement that "attendance at a cross-cultural training institute . . . is claimed to reduce the overseas failure rate to ten to fifteen percent," (p. 5) whereas, according to another source, "a third of. . . American executives working abroad return home before completing their assignments" and "*four out of five* foreign representatives in Japan don't complete their mission" (the reference is to a report in the issue of 21 February 1972 of *Commerce Today*). There is also a reference in LETP (p. 6) to "limited data [that] indicate that high ethnocentrism appears to be associated with overseas job failure" (the work cited is Richard D. Robinson, *International Business Management: A Guide to Decision Making*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1973).

One of the most important conclusions reached by the authors of LWOW is that "government agencies and the military service are far ahead of private industry in recognizing the need for communication with people of other countries in their own language and have made a much greater commitment to language and cultural preparation of their personnel. The government is not claiming, as business often does, that English is the *lingua franca* of the world" (pp. 4-11 and 12).

It should be noted, in the context of this discussion of the opportunities for employment for Americans proficient in one or more foreign languages, that in many cases both the United States Government and American firms hire foreign nationals who are competent in English to fill many positions, whether because they are required to do so by local law or other regulations or agreements, or because they find it more economical to do so, or for both of these reasons (LWOW, p. 4-34).

While it is clear that many Americans of 'ethnic' background possess valuable and useful knowledge of foreign languages, it is the case that many of them do not really speak, nor in particular do they write, the standard language; many such persons will no doubt find, nevertheless, that they have a very important head start in the process of acquiring the sort of competence that would give them an advantage in the competition for positions both at home and abroad for which competence in a foreign language is an asset. (Cf. LWOW, p. 2-21)

EDUCATION TODAY FOR CAREERS IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

Foreign Languages in Graduate Programs in International Business. There are already a number of *graduate* programs in international business in which foreign languages are an integral part of the curriculum. According to the authors of LWOW, three of the most frequently mentioned are the American Graduate School of International Management at Thunderbird, Arizona; the International Institute and the Graduate School of Management at the University of Dallas at Irving, Texas; and the Business Council for International Understanding at American University, in Washington, D.C. (LWOW, p. 6-16). In one phase of the research underlying the conclusions presented in BAIE, the conclusion was reached that along with "knowledge of the economy, politics, business practices and culture of a foreign country or region," and "international management skills," a "working knowledge of a foreign language" was "very important" while other generalist skills were ranked as "important" (BAIE, p. 14).

Appropriateness of American Undergraduate Education Today for Careers in International Business. If we ask how well the education the majority of American *undergraduates* receive now fits them for work in international business, it seems clear from the research presented in BAIE that it does not equip them very well. Specifically, "it was found that less than ten percent of university students now study a modern foreign language, that less than one-half of one percent now study abroad, and that a very high percentage now graduate without ever having had a course about the history, politics, economics or culture of a foreign country or area" (p. 4).

Language Training as Preparation for Assignment Abroad. There is evidence, however, that language training is widely considered by American business to be a very important part of the preparation given to executives who are being assigned to posts abroad and that the ability to learn foreign languages is an important criterion in making the selection, even though the process whereby people are actually chosen for such positions is far from having been thought through rationally and systema'zed. It is important to bear in mind, in this context, that these positions, although important and challenging, are not very numerous.

Current Attitudes. Insofar as general preparation for international relations is concerned, the authors of BAIE make clear in one of their recommendations that the business community has not taken this need seriously: "Hiring practices seem to indicate that companies place a low value on international education. Personnel managers are responding to immediate requirements rather than to future needs" and they conclude that "unless the marketplace generates real demand for students with these capabilities, efforts to improve the quality and supply of students with international training may have little effect" (p. 7). Here, as so often elsewhere, it is clear that mere exhortations are unlikely to have much effect on the situation; only economic, political, and social pressures are likely to lead to change in the education of our students.

Interdisciplinary Programs. Nevertheless, it is the case that "there is a gradual growth of *cross-disciplinary programs* permitting business students to take courses in area studies or international affairs, but more frequently to permit the liberal arts students

to take a minor in business or enroll in a joint degree program." The authors of BAIE conclude that "this is clearly a movement which should be encouraged. At the same time, it is desirable to increase the interactions between the faculties of the business schools, international affairs, and area studies. They have much to learn from each other in order to provide a more desirable education for their students" (pp. 3-4). In LETP, Marianne Inman presents a summary discussion of "descriptions of interdisciplinary programs that feature foreign languages as a supplementary skill" (pp. 19-20), and she makes the point that "a common theme in all these discussions . . . is a lack of appropriate materials and of qualified instructors" (p. 20).

Some Efforts to Effect Change. One of the recommendations made in BAIE is to make efforts to "reverse the trend in higher education, during the past ten years, whereby fewer and fewer students are studying foreign languages and various international courses. It is recommended that the American Council on Education, through its International Education Project, continue to encourage universities to examine existing foreign language requirements, to improve language sequences for non-majors, and to develop a distribution requirement whereby each student would take a certain number of international courses" (p. 7). In the same report the following paragraph speaks for itself:

> In previous sections of this report it has been noted that living abroad, whether on an internship program, a work program (such as the Peace Corps) or on-the-job work experience is the best way to learn a language to a level where it becomes "useful." It is also the best way to come to understand a foreign culture in such a way that one can, in the future, better communicate with people from foreign cultures. Hence, the study abroad programs are an extremely valuable experience for U.S. students who might, later in their careers, be working in a business firm. But the present rate of perhaps 50,000 per year represents only 0.5% of the total of U.S. students enrolled in higher education. Whatever can be done to encourage an increase in these numbers is clearly in the interest of business and . . . of government. (P. 53)

International Business Diplomacy. One of the principal topics in BAIE is the need for executives able to conduct the kinds of negotiations between corporations and governments and host societies that are already a very important part of international business and whose importance "there is every reason to believe . . . will increase in future" (p. 121). The salient points made in the *Report of the Subcommittee on Education and International Business Diplomacy* (Appendix XII) are the following:

(1) Business diplomacy is critical to the success of the multinational corporation.
(2) There is already under way a fundamental shift in relationships between multinational corporations and their host nations; it is visibly apparent around the world that host nations are showing firmer and greater sophistication in their treatment of multinational corporations.
(3) The decline in the technological advantage that American business enjoyed immediately after the Second World War has had the effect of increasing the importance of skill in business diplomacy in the competition for foreign markets.
(4) As a result of the rapid expansion of foreign investment within the United States, more and more Americans are employed by foreign concerns; although their roles in business diplomacy are different from those of managers of American

multinational corporations, "we feel that the underlying skills are of a similar nature and this development therefore provides a further impetus for giving importance to acquiring business diplomacy competence."

(5) The coming decades will be a critical period in the whole pattern of relations between governments and international business. (Pp. 121-122)

The subcommittee's report underscores the fact that business diplomacy is "part of the regular responsibilities of virtually all line managers of the multinational firm" and goes on to say that "one study determined that 45% of the time of general managers abroad was devoted to interactions with host governments" (p. 122). This does not mean that corporation executives of multinational firms who work here in the United States do not have a conspicuously important role to play in business diplomacy, for "the responsibility for major negotiations and other top-level interactions with foreign governments rests with them" (p. 124). Nor is it the case that this role can simply be delegated to foreign nationals employed in the firm's offices abroad, since, although such people are a "vital component of effective business diplomacy . . . because of their knowledge, status and skills," "an executive cannot delegate a function unless he has a basic understanding of the problems, approaches and skills required for it" (p. 124).

The same subcommittee report makes plain, however, that it is unlikely that skill in business diplomacy will be an important goal in the immediate future in the programs of study that prepare tomorrow's executives, and that it is seldom the case that in making assignments of executives abroad the candidates' skill at business diplomacy is a primary consideration. Nevertheless, teachers of foreign languages ought, in this writer's view, to bear in mind the possibility that we may contribute to developing that skill in our students as we design the culture component of our courses. It is of special interest to us to note the recommendation contained in the subcommittee's report that in the early education of those who may be called upon later in life to take part in business diplomacy there be an emphasis on history and foreign societies "sufficient . . . to provide the individual with a sense of the varied patterns of foreign countries and, more fundamentally, to excite his curiosity and interest" and we may note the statement that although "substantial training in economics at the college level" is recommended by some people, that training can reasonably be expected to take place in professional school, while "any substantial amount of education in the political, social and cultural aspects of varied societies is rarely practical at the professional school level, so we strongly encourage this emphasis in early schooling" (p. 130). It seems clear to the writer of this Report, however, that only a strong demand for background of this sort from large numbers of important firms will lead students to structure their studies with this goal in mind. This may well be one of the changes we ought to expect in the eighties. With respect to foreign languages specifically, the subcommittee says:

> Early education in languages as a preparation for business diplomacy has wide support. It is generally recognized that it is impossible to predict at an early age the specific languages which an executive may need at various stages of his career. *The objective, however, is to instill in a person at an early age the capacity to communicate in a second language and to acquire some competence and confidence in the capacity to learn new languages. The preference here is for education starting at the pre-collegiate level* [emphasis added], . . . We recommend that business and others do whatever they can to stem the adverse

direction of the current trend and re-establish momentum towards greater foreign language education in the early stages of life. (P. 132)

Likely Changes in the Eighties

In BAIE the interesting statement is made that "the political problems facing U.S. business in its international operations, whether for trade or export, are partly the result of a growing provincialism of the American citizenry. It may be convincingly argued that the drop of interest in and study of foreign languages is both a symptom of the increasing provincialism and a cause of future provincialism in the thinking, and voting, of the U.S. populace" (p. 53). However, in the same book, we find the following description of a major change in American business over the last twenty years and the following forecast of trends in the future - in the 'real world' — :

> During the past 20 years, a major change in American business has been its growing international involvement: the growth and spread of [multinational corporations]; the increase of numbers of firms which have some foreign subsidiaries; the growth of companies involved in exporting and importing; a decrease in tariffs, putting smaller manufacturers, wholesalers and retailers into closer touch with foreign sources; and international agreements on commodities and currencies which affect the entire business community.
>
> The above changes meant that managers had to deal with people from different cultures and different political and economic regions. They had to learn to understand what was happening in foreign countries, and internationally, in order to anticipate potential problems. Some managers were successful in adapting to and dealing with these changes; others were not so successful. . . .
>
> During the next 20 years, the international involvement of American business will continue to change. Hopefully, we are now better able to predict the coming changes than we were in 1955.
>
> . . ., it seems that the trends of the past 20 years, noted in the first paragraph above, will continue. Overlaid on these past trends will be new trends. The developing countries are becoming more activist, requiring more delicacy in negotiating and renegotiating investment agreements. The UN is moving into the area of review and eventually some control of foreign investment. Eastern Europe, the USSR, and China are opening up to more trade and varying types of investments. The Arab countries have just entered an era of new, great opportunities in trade and investment. (P. 70)

ATTITUDES TOWARD LANGUAGE AND CULTURE AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES

In this same context, the authors of LWOW report that "there is considerable evidence in the literature and in the studies that have been performed by international business experts that an indifferent attitude toward languages and culture is detrimental to the overall operating potential of American businesses abroad and for firms in the United States doing foreign business. This study evoked commentaries, case studies, and data from a number of what we might consider to be highly enlightened company officials who reported unusual success in profits, in public relations, and in total operations, which they attributed to their attention to language and cultural training" (pp. 1-10 and 11). Nevertheless, the author of this Report has the impression that there is in

fact no really general agreement on this point among those who can reasonably claim to be knowledgeable about it.

Again from a purely pragmatic point of view, "doing business in the local language can be a distinct advantage to U.S. companies, especially if they must compete with other companies furnishing comparable products and services" (LWOW, p. 5-75). Although the quality of American goods and technology is still high and makes them attractive to foreign buyers, competition from foreign companies furnishing comparable products and services is already a fact of life for some American firms, and it is reasonable to expect that as such competition increases and becomes more general, more and more American firms will begin, for practical reasons, to pay serious attention to foreign language competence and knowledge of foreign cultures among their employees (cf. LWOW, pp. 5-83 and 84 and LETP, pp. 7-8).

However, until competition forces such a change, "many American companies will be represented by personnel abroad who expect others to do business in English" (LWOW, 1-8). The authors of LWOW point out that there are certain areas of the world where there is resistance to doing business in English; among them are France, Latin America, and some countries in Eastern Europe, including the Soviet Union (LWOW, p. 5-75), and they make an interesting point when they say that many people abroad who do in fact speak English and are capable of transacting business in it would prefer not to do so "for a variety of reasons, not the least of which is a persisting resentment of the former economic domination of English-speaking people" (p. 1-9). They go on to point out that in addition to the practical need there may be for competence in a foreign language there is very considerable human-relations value in demonstrating good will by learning the language of the community in which one lives and works (p. 1-9). There is, nevertheless, a "marked tendency on the part of U.S. business firms towards [the] sort of linguistic chauvinism" summarized in the comment that "English is the *lingua franca* of the business world." The following paragraph taken from LWOW speaks for itself:

> Several corporations reported that they needed foreign languages "for public relations purposes only," indicating that in the natural course of day-to-day business transactions abroad the nature of the work did not require any language other than English. This may be an example of downgrading the importance of public relations in business affairs. It leads one to wonder what effect this type of orientation must inevitably have on long-range growth. In the final analysis, public relations may prove to be not just an important component but the most vital factor in ultimate success, as some of the international business literature suggests (pp. 5-71 and 72; cf. also LETP, pp. 6-8; in LETP there are summaries of the teaching of English to non-English-speaking employees of American firms: *Language Training for non-U.S. National Employees,* pp. 10-12, and of courses in *Languages for Special Purposes* — primarily English for Special Purposes — pp. 21-23).

While there are apparently many American firms that do not yet recognize the need for competence in foreign language and cultures, there is, according to the authors of LWOW, "ample evidence that support from business and management theorists is available" for efforts to change that posture (p. 5-78). However, "it is clear that attitudes toward language capabilities are changing. A number of multinational companies now recognize the importance of dealing with customers in their own language, and some are planning ahead to meet demands for foreign language competency. The

sectors of business which are most likely to express a need for foreign language capabilities include data processing, manufacturing, construction, large banks, transportation, travel, extractive industries (petroleum and mining), export-import, publishing, and advertising" (p. 5-69). Indeed, "many of the respondents to our survey noted that their need for language training will increase in the immediate future" (p. 5-78). Specifically, "Spanish is clearly the language indicated as most needed" and for that reason "a good place to start would be with the cross-training of international business executives and the Spanish language" (p. 5-90).

While it is obvious that events outside the United States will affect the course of American business abroad, the authors of BAIE make the less obvious point that "no major area of American business activity today is substantially unaffected by events and conditions occurring outside the United States" (p. 1); in other words, "the Task Force concluded that most business firms, regardless of size and type of operations, will be affected by economic and political developments on the international scene. Most businessmen will therefore, need an ability to understand and anticipate those effects" (p. 3). It is also the case, according to the same study, that "the number of American managers stationed abroad will probably not diminish during the coming decade" (ibid.). The reason for this is that "during the coming decade, companies which venture overseas on their first few investments will tend to send a larger number of American technical and managerial personnel to those new operations than is true for the more sophisticated multinational corporations. Thus, even though older multinational corporations show a tendency to reduce the number of Americans in their overseas operations, the total number of American managers stationed abroad will probably not diminish in the future and may even continue to increase, though at a slower rate than was true for the 1960's" (pp. 12-13).

With respect specifically to the jobs that will be available in future for people with competence in foreign languages, the conclusions presented in LWOW are (1) that there will continue to be only limited opportunities for employment in teaching, translating and interpreting, but (2) that *it appears that opportunities are increasing for those who combine foreign language competence with solid professional preparation for a wide variety of occupations* [emphasis added] (p. 1-27). In this context it is particularly interesting to note the results of a survey made in 1975 in the nation's heartland; the survey was carried out in Illinois "to determine the level of usage by business, of foreign language skills, and the trends in foreign language education." The results are as follows:

> . . . The researchers found that 14% of the firms responding to the survey questionnaire deal with non-English speaking people abroad and 15% expect to do so during the next 5 years. However, 46% of these firms do not have employees with the necessary business skills and must depend on outside services by agencies or individuals. When asked the college areas from which they would like to recruit employees who also have a foreign language skill, the firms responded, in the following work order: (1) Marketing, (2) Management, (3) Accounting, (4) Finance, (5) Economics, (6) Engineering, and (7) Liberal Arts.
>
> The researchers, in their survey of education, found that no high schools or junior colleges in the state required the study of foreign language. Eight out of eleven 4-year colleges do require it, and 10 out of 12 universities do so, in some departments or colleges.
>
> However, there is a stronger trend toward dropping language offerings (79) than

> toward adding new ones (56). And, finally, the trend in enrollment in foreign language courses is down, at all levels.
>
> These findings are consistent with national figures which, for example, show that 17% of the students in higher education were enrolling in the study of a modern foreign language in 1963, but by 1972 this figure had dropped to 10%.
>
> It is clear, therefore, that while the need for competence in foreign language has been increasing, the trend of the number of college students studying language has been decreasing. (BAIE, p. 52)

Finally, we should note the fact that "while companies have traditionally met their language-training needs by contracting programs with commercial or academic language-teaching organizations or institutions, companies in increasing numbers are adding language coordinators to their staffs to handle the growing language requirements for training Americans going abroad to work, local nationals overseas working in their own countries, or limited-English speaking employees within the United States" (LETP, p. ix), and we should note with special interest the following suggestion made in LETP:

> Companies appear to be receptive to the idea of hiring "language-plus" trained people, since they acknowledge that they are not without communication problems in the international arena, while at the same time they require technical/professional expertise as the primary criterion for an overseas assignment. Perhaps, over time, the new curricular offerings will help produce a more astute, aware, and empathetic American businessperson.
>
> Because of the high mobility of many international businesspeople, however, this approach will not apply in all cases. A person may spend a year or two in a number of countries and totally disparate language areas throughout his or her career, making language mastery for each location a virtual impossibility. *The addition of high level language and area specialists to the international staff would seem to be a viable alternative in cases where language, cultural, and technical expertise cannot be combined in a single individual* [emphasis added]. Such individuals should be equal in stature and responsibility to the technical specialist member of the team and not just a staff interpreter/translator. This specialist should be more than an advisor or someone to be consulted occasionally; rather he or she should occupy a central role in planning and then in operating the overseas venture. The additional cost of employing such individuals should be more than compensated by the more positive image the company presents, by additional business revenues, and by a reduction of delays, conflicts, and misguided operations. (P. 25)

Consequences for the Teaching of Foreign Languages in American Schools and Colleges

The consensus resulting from a Delphi process involving all of the members of the two task forces whose work underlies BAIE is that:

> (1) the number of overseas managers will not be decreasing; (2) a very high percentage of all U.S. business managers, at all levels and in all types of companies,

> whether or not they have international operations or are directly engaged in exporting, have need for knowledge of international business; (3) there will continue to be a growing need for both specialized and generalist types of international business skills; (4) "solid" training in one of the functional fields of business should be understood to include the international aspects of that field; and (5) most of the generalist skills in international business are preferably taught in universities, while most of the specialist skills are best learned in executive development programs or on the job (p. 14).

It is especially interesting to note that 100% of those involved in the Delphi process considered that among the generalist skills a working knowledge of a foreign language was either very important (58%) or important (42%) and that 85% thought that the need for this skill would grow, while only 15% thought it would decrease (BAIE, p. 75). This means that there will be an increasing demand for people who have competence in a foreign language as an adjunct skill and that increasing demand will have obvious consequences for the teaching of foreign languages in this country.

In LWOW it is pointed out that both government and business now spend large amounts of money on language training much of which is remedial in the sense that it is undertaken to bring people from the level they have reached in their formal schooling up to the level of competence required for a language to be useful. The question is also raised whether a substantial proportion of this money could not be saved if the training given in the schools were improved and redirected. The authors of LWOW suggest that "it would seem so if language training were targeted more closely to actual language use, and if colleges and universities, particularly, made their language curriculum job-specific and highly intensive" (pp. 5-60 and 61). But the authors of LWOW are aware that not all educators are convinced that the schools, colleges and universities ought to be providing this sort of language instruction: ". . . since there are many jobs which require knowledge of a language as an adjunct skill, it would be missing an opportunity not to provide language training for this need. . . . Some will question whether this is an acceptable goal for college language students, while others . . . maintain that finding such new alternatives is the key to survival" (p. 6-6).

According to LWOW, too, it is likely that the need for language competence as an adjunct skill will increase in government, international business, and in the domestic economy (pp. 1-21 and 22). According to data cited in BAIE, it seems furthermore that "among both area study and international affairs programs, something in the range of 20 to 50% of graduates go into business careers. The indications from our interviews also indicate that the trend is in this direction; that some of the opportunities in government and other organizations which have traditionally been favored by students in international affairs programs have appeared less favorable in recent years. As a result, they are increasingly seeking opportunities in the business field" (pp. 136-137). However, it seems "that the greater portion of area studies and international affairs programs were not significantly concerned with business studies at this point;" nevertheless, the researchers "observed substantial movement in the direction of more attention to business studies among international affairs faculties" (BAIE, p. 138). It seems reasonable to conclude from these data that these trends may have an effect on the teaching of foreign languages in that they may increase demand for language training leading to the sort of competence that people going into international business need. The authors of LWOW recommend that those colleges and universities that decide to

modify their foreign language instruction in such a way as to meet this need look to the Federal Government's training programs as models and inform themselves about precisely what kind of competence business needs (p. 5-89). They also suggest that the needs of those whose aim is a career in government service could be met by "a specialized curriculum that would coordinate their preparation for government service with a specific type of language training so that foreign language skills would be truly an integral part of their overall job qualifications" (LWOW, p. 1-7). In an extensive survey of relevant literature as part of the research undertaken to prepare LWOW, "one of the most important findings . . . was that increased attention during the past year had been given to what is often expressed as career-based foreign language education, or what we refer to as 'languages for the world of work.' In many schools the emerging concept of career education in general is acting as a catalyst within the language profession. In other cases, the inability of the language departments, particularly at the college and university levels, to place their graduates in academic positions has brought a realization that language departments must expand the offerings of their language training to include specific training for the use of languages as an adjunct skill to another professional or technical training. This would be in addition to the traditional departmental offerings of conversational language, grammar and structure, literature and linguistics" (LWOW, pp. 1-2 and 3).

There are those who perceive a need to change fundamental attitudes among some teachers of foreign languages. In LWOW, it is reported that there was a consensus among those already involved in career-oriented foreign language instruction or at least in favor of such instruction that, among other things, "traditionalists resist this innovation as being inconsistent with the role that the humanities should maintain in the academic setting. It is necessary, therefore, to mount a major educational effort directed toward the language profession itself;" there was also a consensus among these same people that "proponents of language for careers are cognizant of the value of literature and linguistic training. The cry for greater relevancy is not an attack on the humanities; rather, it is seen as a realistic response to the limited employability of language majors who are presently specialized in literature or linguistics"(p. 2-8). The following passages, taken from LWOW, contain an argument for one side of the debate:

> The clarification of the role of the humanities in the marketplace is today one of the chief challenges facing the colleges in general and the language teaching profession in particular. There is obviously a wide divergence of opinion regarding this issue, and much effort will be required before a consensus can be reached.
>
> In the meantime, it seems appropriate to suggest that both viewpoints can be accepted. Language study, for its liberal arts and humanistic values, cannot be overlooked. On the other hand, language study for service to the community and to satisfy the needs of government and business must also be taken into consideration (p. 6-5).
>
> From the point of view of a teacher of literature it may seem as if he has sold out to crass materialism if he teaches the foreign language to a student who will use it in business rather than to teach literature. One should consider, however, the great contribution the language departments can make to the business world in terms of the ability to carry on business operations in the host's language and with proper deference to the host's cultural values. Certainly the typical American businessman could use to good advantage the humanizing influence which comes from studying language and intercultural communications. This assertion applies with

equal force to many other careers. What could be more humanizing than bringing people together in a common tongue? (Pp. 6-7 and 8)

One of the lessons to be learnt from the research that has been done and presented in the sources from which the material for this Report *has been drawn is, in the opinion of the writer, that teachers of foreign languages in this country should make a deliberate policy of teaching explicitly how to learn foreign languages, rather than simply assuming that students learn the techniques by applying them without studying them consciously.* Flexibility — we might also call this quality *adaptability* — is surely one of the characteristics that people in a wide variety of occupations will need in the future as their careers take them from place to place and, not infrequently, from language to language. There is evidence that some leaders in the business world are aware that success in learning one foreign language augurs well for later efforts to learn others (cf. LWOW, pp. 5-71 and 83 and 85; BAIE, pp. 60, 78 and 81 and LETP, p. 1, paragraph 1).

Here, then, are important needs to which we must address ourselves:

(1) *There is a need for real proficiency in foreign languages, as opposed to mere study of one or more languages.* Meeting this need will not be easy. The authors of LWOW cite the contention of Jean S. Bidwell in an article in the ADFL *Bulletin* that "the most difficult job will still be to convince local districts and administrators that language acquisition is cumulative and that *students must meet the objectives at each level before receiving credit and proceeding to the next*" (quoted from LWOW, p. 6-20). A related problem is the need to convince school boards, colleagues, administrators and all other interested parties that *foreign language instruction should be maintained in spite of the temporary decrease in enrollment that such standards may well produce.*

(2) *Clearly defined levels of proficiency are needed;* once defined they should be applied universally and uniformly throughout the country both for designing and describing courses and curricula and for reporting students' achievement. It is clear that such ratings would also be useful for improving the articulation of foreign language courses. A widely respected model is the system of ratings that has been developed by the Foreign Service Institute.

(3) *There is a need for specialized curricular materials* to permit instruction in foreign languages that will meet the specific needs of different occupations. The preparation of such materials will require much specialized knowledge and a high degree of linguistic sophistication on the part of those who compose them. There are still few materials that integrate language, cultural empathy and a discipline. (LWOW, p. 6-12; cf. also LETP, p. 23.) It seems that the national market for this type of materials "is not great enough yet to attract national publishers to the production of school or college texts in these areas of specialization. It is therefore a task that is being undertaken only by individuals in those places where the need is most pressing" (LWOW, p. 6-17). The authors of LWOW observe that this task "presents a formidable challenge" and they suggest that the work could be carried forward expeditiously if it were shared and coordinated (p. 6-29). In particular, these authors suggest that "what is called for is an entirely new approach to text writing;" specifically, they suggest "the use of modules for career education materials . . . as a viable and practical approach to curriculum development, especially at the second and third level of language . . . integrating the acquisition of practical structure with natural

language activities" (LWOW, p. 6-31).

The suggestion is made that the integration of language and professional preparation requires ideally that the content of the language instruction be specifically related to the principal discipline. The point is made that "social workers domestically and the international manager overseas will need an entirely different set of competencies from those now expected of a language teacher or a teacher of literature" (LWOW, p. 6-27); it seems to this writer that it is debatable whether the set of competencies required for such occupations and others like them is *entirely* different from those needed by teachers of languages and literature. In any case, there is a wide variety of occupations for which competence in a foreign language is likely to be a valuable adjunct skill and for which we ought to provide adequate training.

(4) *There may be a need for an alternative track emphasizing oral and aural proficiency* or, more generally, "for those who choose to use language as a tool in a career" (LWOW, pp. 1-26 and 6-19). Meeting this need will entail some rethinking of departmental goals, priorities and structures.

(5) *There is an increasing need for training in cultural awareness.* It seems clear that this training should take place if not exclusively within the framework of instruction in foreign languages at least always in intimate collaboration with those who teach them. In the specific context of business abroad, the authors of LWOW say: "the second major goal indicated by this study is the need to develop increased cultural understanding and empathy for people whose language one is studying. As in the case of the language itself, a mere awareness of components or issues is not sufficient training for the person who will represent his country and his company overseas. Cultural training should enable the person to cope with cultural shock and cultural fatigue and to keep from offending one's hosts in other countries so that the assigned task can be accomplished" (p. 6-22). These authors do not fail to point out that "in seeking models for the synthesis of a nation's characteristics, values and beliefs, what better source is there than the prototypes found in literature?" (p. 6-24) and ". . . there is no finer source material for the preparation of cultural empathy curricula than the literature of a country"; however, they take the position that "in the utilization of literature for these purposes the goals do not include reading the text in the original, literary analysis, nor the study of literary devices and techniques used by the author [;rather, what] is asked for is the development of curricular materials which enable the student to grasp the essential nature of the culture, that is, the way of life of the people whose language he or she is studying" (p. 6-24). In LWOW the following statement about the *Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research* is made and is reproduced here for the information of readers of this Report:

> In the development of intercultural communications training models, it is very difficult to find such a practical orientation and such a wealth of resource materials [as is] available through SIETAR. It is suggested that foreign language teachers on all levels have a great deal to learn from SIETAR and that a cross-fertilization of ideas between the members of the professional language organizations (MLA and ACTFL) and SIETAR should be a matter of first priority. (P. 6-25) [SIETAR's

current address is: Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.; telephone (202) 625-3391.]

(6) In BAIE the point is made repeatedly that *there is a need for more internship programs for our young to spend time abroad actually living and working in a foreign society and in a foreign language.* It is also pointed out that it is not yet the case that such experience is given adequate formal recognition; specifically, it is not yet common for *academic credit* to be given for serious work of this sort. An interesting datum in this context is the fact that according to three surveys of people who had taken part in internships abroad, a large proportion of those "who indicated that they had sufficient ability to cope with the foreign language demands of the traineeship" had since either been involved in international activities or had worked abroad for one year or more (BAIE, pp. 99, 105, and 113).

Afterword

Now that we have peered into our crystal ball, we can ask what it is reasonable to expect in the eighties, in the light of the thoughtful forecasts and projections that are available now. It is *possible* that the following things will happen:

(1) Although the number of jobs involved will not be very large in proportion to the total in our national economy, it may well be the case that those who have a real *competence* in a major foreign language, *in addition to sound primary professional qualifications,* will have an advantage in the competition for some of the more challenging, interesting, and rewarding jobs.

(2) American business firms in general *may* find that competence in foreign languages and understanding of foreign cultures are increasingly useful to them. It is perhaps more likely that *a generally heightened sensitivity to the world beyond our borders will seem useful in a very wide variety of American enterprises. It is therefore possible that many Americans who will not have any direct need for competence in one or more foreign languages will find valuable an extended, serious study of a foreign language as part of an education designed to produce large numbers of people able to cope with an economy that is increasingly international.*

(3) While many people may need or simply want to learn foreign languages independently of their cultural context, the probable need for more and more individual Americans to deal directly or indirectly with foreigners makes it likely that the link between language and culture will be seen by more and more people to be essential; such a perception would have the effect of changing the expectations of students in courses in foreign languages: they would expect not only more but more sophisticated treatment of the culture associated with the foreign language they were studying. In turn, this would entail far-reaching changes in the way teachers of foreign languages are trained.

The questions that these possibilities pose for us teachers of foreign languages are numerous, and far from simple. In sum, we must evaluate the serious forecasts and thoughtful opinions at our disposal and decide both what changes to make in our own professional activity and what advice to give other interested parties in the public debates that have already begun concerning the shape of education in this country in the years immediately ahead. In particular, it seems to this writer that it is especially important that we all plan not only for the immediate future but for the rest of this century, a task that will perhaps be all the more difficult because as a people we are not much given to *long-term* planning.

ED191307

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Educational Technology

Introduction

Technology is neither media nor audio-visual equipment. The latter are products of technology. According to a survey by the National Education Association among teachers in 1000 elementary and secondary schools across the nation in 1967,[1] media use by teachers consisted predominantly of records, tapes, and slides or filmstrips interspersed with an occasional motion picture film. Another survey in 1978[2] confirmed these habits and indicated that motion picture film has slipped in popularity in those dozen years with no apparent surge in the use of television as a substitute. According to the Northeast Conference Present Status Survey,[3] these tendencies are reflected among those foreign language teachers from both secondary schools and higher education who responded to the questionnaire.

Technology is a technical method of achieving a practical purpose. Its present-day realities for the educator — in foreign languages or any other field — are based on economics; not the economics of several billions such as one hears of for national defense nor even the economics of several millions, but the economics of small amounts of money irregularly budgeted for what amount to localized projects.

These limitations of our educational technology are the result of having to make do with domestic and commercial products. We do not have access to national research and development directed toward the needs of education. Differently stated, we must be content with those devices which industry occasionally places within our budgetary limits. And we must use them as best we can.

TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS

The first question to be answered about any technological device is: What problem was it designed to solve? This is frequently a complex question, not easily answered. Film, for example, is often thought of as being able to inform, entertain, and educate. But it is not a technological answer to such questions as: How do I inform? How do I entertain? How do I educate? It is a technological answer to: How do I store an image?

An applied technologist who examines such complex questions as how one goes about informing, educating, and entertaining may formulate an operational theory that calls for the storage of a series of still images which, when viewed optically, produce the impression of continuous motion and can be synchronized with other devices capable of

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1. *Instructional Resources in the Classroom. NEA Research Bulletin,* 45(October 1967) 75-77. Also in: *Audiovisual Instruction,* 13(1967), 284-85.
2. Nicola R. Laird, "Which Media Do Teachers Use Most?", *Audiovisual Instruction,* 23(6:1978), 23-25.
3. See the first chapter of this volume by Peter A. Eddy.

storing sounds and retrieving them in such a way as to make them audible and provide two dimensional simulations of situations, past or future, concrete or abstract, real or illusionary. One should note at this juncture that such an operational theory could allow for the use of motion picture film as easily as television. Additional data would be necessary to govern a choice.

SYSTEMS

Another important fact to note about this work of our applied technologist is that it is generating a system, i.e., an interdependent collection of devices. The systems behind motion picture film, for example, consist of those which record the visual and the aural, those which reproduce these two components, and the multitude of unseen support systems such as the architectural ones responsible for the room in which viewing takes place, the engineering ones responsible for the presence of electrical power, etc.

Even the simplest devices of technology are systems and — regardless of simplicity — will not function should even one component fail. A simple coffee cup consists of a deep, wide-mouthed, thin vessel often with a projecting lip and an opening suited for pouring its contents into the human mouth; and a thermal insulation between the contents and the hand of the holder. Should one element not function, the system breaks down, producing considerable frustration. Consider, for example, the breakdown of the thermal barrier provided by the handle or walls of the cup. This will render the coffee cup incapable of solving the problem for which it was designed: pouring hot coffee into the human mouth without burning the fingers or being dropped in mid-process.

Since incomplete systems do not function properly, and since technological solutions are dependent upon systems, one must be extremely cautious of the idea that something is better than nothing. If our budget limits cannot provide funds to support an entire system, it is better to go about solving our problems with less expensive and more productive, but simpler, solutions. Common examples might be the use of a tape recorder in the classroom if a school cannot afford to maintain a language laboratory, discussion centered on a photograph when one lacks slides or projectors, or reading to the class from a book of poems if the record player fails. Notice where the buck is going to stop as we retreat from the complex solutions toward the simpler ones for one reason or another. If we go back far enough, we reach the basic element of a classroom: the teacher.

Problems. Although the innovator may look upon technological solutions as being close to the ultimate solution, there are inescapable forces acting that produce failure, lack of control, and obsolescence. Failure is most often the product of human frailty molded too permanently into the technological solution. It enters the system at both the design stage and the implementation stage. Most generally it places the stamp of irrational human thought on the rational machine. It is responsible for such outcomes as the first crossing of the Titanic and the last crossing of Skylab.

Lack of control is comprised of a number of problems over which neither the applied technologist nor the eventual user has much influence. On the part of the donor who pays for the project, these include ignorance as to the needs of the recipient who will use the system. There is also the donor's occasional need for a guinea pig to test a system for a short period rather than solve the recipient's problems on a long-term basis. Donors

also may desire to erect a memorial for future generations to admire, rather than to improve the lot of the recipient. On the part of recipients there is frequently a lack of training to deal with technological resources. There may also be a need for immediate and visible success even at the expense of a logical progression toward a solution to the true problems. Often there is simple resistance to change.

Since technological solutions are devised by human beings who are products of their own experience and since the future is always uncertain, obsolescence begins with the first moment of technological creation. We who depend upon educational technology are somewhat less affected by obsolescence than those dependent upon state-of-the-art fields, such as aerospace or nuclear technology. Nevertheless, it still influences our lives.

Once a solution is chosen, we are restricted to the use of that solution. Indeed the solution may impede further progress towards even better solutions. Take, for example, the use of the compact cassette as a choice over reel-to-reel tape recorders. The apparent ease of cassette operation is often defeated by the malfunction of what is actually a miniature reel-to-reel system within an inexpensive plastic case. This has made the compact cassette one of the greatest expendables in education since scratch pads, far surpassing the throw-away characteristics of reel-to-reel tapes or phonograph records with which they are closely allied. Cassettes are not, however, inexpensive to purchase and neither are cassette recorders and players which now range from just under $100 to well over a thousand dollars. Thus, once committed to cassette equipment as a technological solution, a school may find that it cannot afford to purchase any other type of equipment. It must continue the wasteful purchase of cassettes to replace those that turn up with tangled tape.

CHANGE

Technology produces change, or perhaps it establishes change as an imperative in the lives of those associated with it. Many administrators look upon technology as a way of maintaining a status quo, but it is ill-suited for this purpose. The use of a technological solution to a problem will eventually introduce an element of change, and while many of us find this challenging, others find it threatening. The Rand[4] study on changes in education describes four categories of human beings involved in change: the innovators, the early followers, the late followers, and those who never follow. Each of us must recognize how we react to change and make allowances for the ways others react.

Returning to the use of the tape recorder in a classroom, if one should find this process inadequate because of high enrollment figures, technology might solve the problem. Should it be necessary to provide audio stimuli to several dozen students instead of a few, an applied technologist might suggest a language laboratory as a possible technological solution. But it must be remembered that the language laboratory does not teach, does not provide remedial drills, and does not answer the question: How do I educate more students with the same number of teachers without altering the course objectives? The language laboratory will answer the question: How do I store and pro-

4. Paul Berman and Milbrey McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change: The Findings in Review* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation, 1975 [EDRS:ED 108 330]).

vide access to sound recordings for many students?

If that is one of your teaching objectives, the technologist may have defined a solution to one problem. But the language laboratory will also create the need for more floor space devoted to language practice, a greater number of chairs for the students to sit in, additional taped instructional materials in larger quantities than ever before envisioned, and more sophisticated technical support requiring possible personnel increases. If your operational theory is moderately accurate; if you have chosen a workable system toward the technological solution; and if you can accommodate to the new set of circumstances created by the change which technology introduces, a set of advantages will be realized which cannot be ignored:

(1) Increased efficiency in teaching greater numbers of students by allowing stability of educational objectives and faculty size.
(2) Greater learning opportunities for the students who may benefit from the diversified activities available from a curriculum which incorporates use of a language laboratory as opposed to one which utilizes a single overworked teacher in one crowded classroom.
(3) Motivational factors relevant to the manner in which students function in our technologically developed society, i.e., if the medium is indeed part of the message, the professionally produced materials which are usually obtainable for language laboratory study hold both motivational significance and linguistic importance.

Most importantly, this simplistic example and its derived advantages cannot succeed if the input of the educator is not a constant part of the system. So-called teaching machines do not teach. There is a need for editorial and pedagogical expertise to create a teaching situation. This can be demonstrated by realizing how useless a language laboratory is without the intellectual efforts of teachers who insure that the right material is available and that the students are motivated to use it. Just as the intended end-use of the simple system of the coffee cup will fail when there is no one skilled at brewing good coffee, the language laboratory will fail when there is no one skillful in the creation of adequate teaching materials, no student interest in going to the laboratory, and ad infinitum through all the technological solutions known to mankind.

Social Change. Despite some human resistance to change, the socioeconomic variations produced by technology through the ages have — in neat accordance with the theories advanced earlier — produced a contemporary society with an educational frontier more fascinating and challenging than any of the past. We all studied the cotton gin and the ensuing industrial revolution, and while some of us may have lived at the time of the discovery of rayon, only the younger among us will remember reading in the newspapers of the discovery of nylon and dacron. Similarly, most of us are familiar with the developments that first produced radio and later television. These were the commercial products which industry found it could produce inexpensively enough for us to afford for our homes. Being inexpensive, they appeared in our schools, too.

World War II produced a dramatic change in the educational philosophy of the foreign language teaching profession in the United States. The Army Specialized

Training Program (ASTP) was charged with quickly producing soldiers who could speak the languages of the country our armies were occupying. The widespread acceptance of methods developed by the applied linguists of the ASTP, caused this nation to shift its foreign languages teaching emphasis. Direct translation from foreign text into English — in vogue since the Coleman Report[5] in 1929 — yielded to the teaching of four skills which included speaking and listening as well as reading and writing.

The advent of the space race heralded by the successful launch of Sputnik on October 4, 1956, also jolted the foreign language teaching profession. Suddenly, it was again in the national interest to teach and to learn foreign languages (sciences, too, received a good deal of attention and support), and we set about spending the millions of dollars that the sixties brought to our institutions.

Even more important than these funds which we were so delighted to have available and which were spent in truly human fashion — some wisely, some not so wisely — was the parallel research and development directed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). As we tried, time after time, to equal the Russian space successes, it was discovered that we did not have the ability to launch enough weight into space. We needed either more efficient fuel or lighter weight instrumentation for our rockets. It was the latter solution to this problem that yielded a miniaturized branch of electronics known as microelectronics.

Economic Change. Today microelectronics are responsible for the fastest change our society has ever seen. These highly complex configurations of electronic control circuits are virtually invisible to the naked eye as they nestle on their wafers of silicon. They are inexpensive and easy to produce. Within the last decade they have placed devices in our homes — and in our schools — that were only experimental dreams of the prior decade.

A microelectronic circuit does nothing that could not have been done twenty years ago with vacuum tubes, and the logic behind these microprocessors remains much the same. But the microcircuit has changed the economics of the system. We now have very small packages which consume very little power and can be manufactured in great quantity at reasonable cost. They are also very reliable. Thus, we enjoy a $10 pocket calculator that replaces a $100 mechanical adding machine, and so forth up the line.

In the past, technological change and its accompanying labor-saving devices were matched by increased industrial output. This required great numbers of people to produce large quantities of goods, all for the common benefit of further increased production. These growth economics may well not apply in the future. The almost catastrophic change of values associated with the energy crises of the seventies may well produce a population able to enjoy the products of its technologically developed society as leisure rather than as further increased consumption. Such changes are identified by the recent resurgence of such personal values as interest in organic gardening; the arts of mime, crafts, and the dance; or environmental considerations, such as local recycling committees or Greenpeace. Certainly none of these concepts can be derived directly from the countless circuits and flashing indicators of microelectronic devices.

5. Algernon Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States* (New York: Macmillan, 1929).

The Educational Frontier

Education as a whole and the foreign language teaching profession in particular have been vitally concerned for the past several years with what has been described as a shortage of teaching positions. Each discipline has, at one time or another, felt that this situation was the result of partially or totally ignorant attacks from other disciplines in the constant competition for educational budget allocations. In reality it has been the effect of shrinking demands for labor resulting from new technologies. There are many things we can do to help one another and, more importantly, our students to deal with the socioeconomic implications of this revolution. We must:

(1) Help students to prepare themselves for accelerating change in society.
(2) Help ourselves and students alike to adjust to new employment opportunities offered by technologically advanced occupations.
(3) Help people to use their leisure — both after work and after retirement as well as the enforced leisure of unemployment — for activities that contribute to the comfort and happiness of others as well as themselves and to the improvement of our own environment.
(4) Help people to maintain their dignity when there are no jobs for them at all, whether from layoffs, excessing, or retirement.

To do this in our schools and colleges there is a need to provide more emphasis on attitudes relating to work and society, on secular concerns, on human dignity and the worth of man — more emphasis on humanism.

There is also a need to provide our students with an understanding of microelectronics and the so-called computers or microprocessors which they spawn. Such an understanding should provide us with an idea of what technological devices can and cannot accomplish. Those among us with a propensity for the scientific and the logical may pursue careers directly related to microelectronics. The rest of us must be content with a measure of intellectual curiosity and pleasure in learning.

Remembering that educational technology remains the stepchild of domestic and commercial developments, we must look for a new set of advantages derived from microelectronics to assist us in dealing with the new set of problems which will accompany them. We should expect to develop new teaching and learning methods from microelectronic applications available for consumer purposes.

As one investigates the learning opportunities that technology will make available, there is the likelihood that educational programs will not be influenced by educational requirements but by the types of devices that can be sold at a profit to the general public. Serious thought should be given to the many video games that are being marketed for use with the home television receiver. These can be exploited as a means of organizing relevant information for individual learning both inside and outside the classroom. For example, the funny little stick figures and bouncing objects already so common to these games could be used to demonstrate situations in German where prepositions may take either the accusative or the dative case, or perhaps as a demonstration of the use of the partitive in French. Instead of points toward winning the game against an opponent, one would earn points toward the privilege of studying the subjunctive!

INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION (ITV)

Currently one of the successful ways of bringing intellectual energy and talent to those whose formal education has been completed, as well as to those schools and campuses unable to foot the entire bill, is through televised instruction. Ten years ago this tactic was used with misgiving by a few overcrowded universities which needed to provide large lecture sessions for their burgeoning enrollments. The talking faces left much motivation to be desired even when they were projected on a screen twelve feet tall.

Today, instructional television is more successful. The *Chronicle of Higher Education* reported, "School officials and faculty members are now hailing the tube as the greatest boon to public education since the Gutenberg press." The fact that faculties are hailing this revolution is questionable, but the revolution itself is undeniable. Just as the invention of movable type in the fifteenth century provided a means to distribute information more efficiently, and therefore more affordably, the technology of microelectronics will provide another quantum jump in the distribution and processing of information.

Among the successful ITV courses are *The Adams Chronicles, The Great Search,* and *Nova.* Unless you studied with John Kenneth Galbraith before his retirement from Harvard University, your only access today to his voice and image is through television; and the late Jacob Bronowski surely has a fitting memorial in *The Ascent of Man.*

Such courses are referred to in the entertainment industry as 'wrap-arounds' since the course is wrapped around the motion picture or television production — usually a high quality series produced for television. A printed text and lecture series, along with supplementary materials and testing procedures constitute the course. They are useful with both 16 mm film and videocassette formats.

These courses are designed by working academicians, and the future of writing such curricula to accompany forthcoming television series of this type is attracting the interests of an increasing number of colleges and universities. Even foreign language teaching is part of the effort. *Sesame Street,* produced by Children's Television Workshop, now offers selected portions of its programming in Spanish and other languages for the explicit purpose of learning those languages.[6] The editorial work of converting the television materials was not done by the producers, whose expertise does not extend to foreign language pedagogy. It was done by foreign language educators.

Consortia have also been formed to produce materials for televised instruction. One of these is comprised of the City Colleges of Chicago, Coast (Calif.) Community College District, Tarrant County (Texas) Junior College District, and Dallas County (Texas) Community College District. It has produced a year course in American Government. Each of the consortium members was able to contribute a regional aspect to the final program. In another cooperative effort, The Maryland Center for Public Broadcasting and the Television College in Chicago have produced the geography series *Of Earth and Man.* Commercial liaisons, such as the Coast (Calif.) Community College District's work with McGraw-Hill have produced the college level course in child psychology entitled *Growing Years.*

6. Although Children's Television Workshop has attempted to adapt their *Sesame Street* characters to learning materials in a number of languages, the most successful in this country is the Spanish language arts series published by National Textbook Company entitled *¡Trabajemos con Calle Sésamo!*

Those who benefit from such ITV are often people who are not able to leave their homes: parents caring for small children, the retired or handicapped, and prisoners. Successful ITV programs are seldom described in literature that reaches the foreign language teacher, but they are easy to find in writings on human services or adult education.

It has been more than twenty years since the Modern Language Project equipped television with *Parlons Français* and since the late Henry Lee Smith narrated the National Educational Television film series, *Language and Linguistics*. Perhaps it is time for foreign language educators to turn their attention again to some aspect of popular education through televised instruction. Our literature is copious, and our pedagogy is adequate to provide themes for this type of expansion. And with the on-campus population of 18 year olds growing smaller each year as the demographics of the nation change, we must look away from our schools and campuses for new departures in education.

VIDEO RECORDINGS

Traditional videorecording tape has a mylar backing material coated with a magnetic substance capable of storing the magnetic information that makes up the televised image. The price of mylar (a DuPont patented material), and therefore the price of videotape, has been quite stable for the past twenty years.

During the past decade the international electronics industry has been attempting to store and retrieve motion pictures (along with synchronized sound) less expensively than can be done on photographic film or videotape. The motivation for these attempts has been to enable the non-broadcast entertainment industry to distribute television programs in much the same way that music is distributed by means of the phonograph record: universally and inexpensively. In 1970 the promises of this research filled our expectations with thoughts of feature length films cheaply duplicated on any one of a dozen combinations of media that could be played on the home television receiver. The proposed names of these devices are hardly remembered today.

The hucksters pointed to the new educational possibilities these machines would create, and promoters around the world began to collect options on the distribution rights for as many hours of entertainment and educational materials as they could locate without having to offer cash. They were waiting for one company or another to successfully produce a videotape that could be sold at an affordable price. Nothing happened as one option after another expired.

Finally, it was Philips, a Dutch firm, that produced a television storage device which has been made available under the generic name of videodisc (note the final consonant) and which will be available on the American consumer market as the Magnavox/MCA Disco-Vision.[7] Simplistically stated, the videodisc uses a laser beam of controlled light reflected off the surface of a twelve-inch silver colored disc similar to a phonograph

7. Although the videodisc has not yet become a household item in the United States, the cooperative venture of Magnavox (a Japanese controlled American manufacturer of television equipment) and MCA (an American entertainment conglomerate) almost guarantees that the product will become more and more common. Additionally, late in 1979 IBM announced that it had also joined with MCA to "develop, manufacture, and market videodiscs and videodisc players.

record. This reproduces the 54,000 images that make up the one thirty-minute side of visual program material, audio, and control information per side. Recording onto the disc is not possible except during original manufacture. There is no physical contact with the disc, and it is enclosed in a protective envelope until it is engaged within the player; thus, the longevity of the disc is probably greater than that of the normal phonograph record.

The 108,000 frames of visual information per disc can be used in virtually any combination of motion or still sequences, and access to any point on the surface of the disc is many times faster than access to any portion on the surface of a tape which must be wound down to the proper location. Videodiscs are light in weight; inexpensive to duplicate, even in small quantities; can provide forward and backward motion, slow or accelerated motion, and frame by frame projection.

There are practical problems that remain to be solved before the videodisc finds widespread classroom acceptance. Although the Magnavox/MCA videodisc player offers a device suitable for continuous programs like feature films and documentaries, the hardware is not built for rapid start and stop commands needed by instructional interaction with students. There is a so-called educational/industrial version of the Disco-Vision player that promises to be more nearly what is needed for a learning situation, but its applications have yet to be developed, and one can expect the price to be high.

The potential of this optical video recording medium is high, and it is becoming more commonly available. If the manufacturers can keep the machines dependable and inexpensive enough, we may soon see them in our schools. If there is much more delay in building a mass market, the videodisc will soon become another technological development that was obsolete before it gained popularity — like blimps and Edsels.

DIGITAL DEVICES

Pocket calculators with digital electronic readouts have been on the consumer market for about five years. In that time the computing power of a machine costing $200 has increased from one that simply adds, subtracts, multiplies, and divides (these are the four basic functions of a calculator) to one that offers over a hundred mathematical functions, data storage, data memory even when switched off, programmability, internal clocks, and a variety of peripheral accessories to allow printing on paper, optical sensing, etc. This is indicative of the shrinking time scale of change that characterizes microelectronics.

For about the same amount of money one can now buy a pocket microelectronic device known as a talking language translator. This is a second generation version of the pocket electronic translators introduced to the consumer market of 1978-79. The manufacturer[8] of the talking translator describes its speech as synthesized, and we have certainly read in the press[9] of the linguistic limitations of the electronic logic involved.

8. Texas Instruments had circulated advertising material describing their Language Translator during Fall 1979 with promises of delivery by the end of November. At Thanksgiving this writer had yet to see them in the stores.

9. Ralph Blumenthal, "Testing Out Two Pocket Electronic Translators." *The New York Times*, (March 25, 1979), xx:5.

The problems arise from the fact that the machines are literal, have severely limited vocabularies, and know nothing of inflecting either verbs or nouns. A few dollars spent on a phrase book is still a much better bet, but by 1984 the situation could easily change.

Although mathematical electronic calculators (as opposed to the linguistic) have a natural affinity for digital operation since most calculations are digital, consumer markets are now flooded with another, less naturally digital, device — the wristwatch. This product has not enjoyed the design success of the calculator. First, in the attempt to make digital watches available to everyone regardless of their expendable income, there is too great a quality difference among the various timepieces on the market. A watch for under $25 is probably unreliable. Second, the digital watch is an uneasy marriage of that part of the jeweler's craft which designs substantial and aesthetic cases to hold the works on the owner's arm and the technologist's craft of creating a device that will keep accurate time. Both of these craftsmen are accomplished: watches have been used for years as jewelry — items of adornment; and digital timing devices will keep time as accurately as one cares to pay to have them do so. But many digital watch cases do not really stay together very well regardless of their cost, and this allows for early deterioration of the electronics. Jewelers have not yet created original designs to house the necessary digital readout — they simply slapped the digits where the hands used to be on analog watches.

The true future of digital technology is not involved with flashing numbers of readouts whether they be on watches, calculators, or manned space vehicles. These are all simply interfaces, i.e., places where man and machine interact. They make it possible to read a rapid presentation of a small amount of repetitive information. More important is the development of digital processing and control systems for the storage (recording) and retrieval (playback) of the forthcoming pages of human history.

The principles of such storage and retrieval systems are already well defined, but the funds for developing them have come only sporadically from projects with specific objectives. For years one such objective has been to create a machine that could synthesize the sounds in our lives — speech as well as all the other sounds we hear from day to day.

A prototype installation exists at that venerable fine music station WQXR in New York City. On June 7, 1979, WQXR became the first commercial station in the United States to broadcast an hour-long program using a digital audio source. These digital recordings were made from conventional sound recordings — probably phonograph records.

The system used by WQXR is designed specifically for music. It has a dynamic range (the difference between the loudest and softest sounds) almost 200 times greater than the best tape recorders available. This, incidentally, exceeds the performance of any licensed FM transmitter and most receiving equipment.

The technology used in this digital broadcast involves the digital synthesis of a continuous, or analog, value (i.e., the musical sound). The sound is sampled thousands of times a second and then converted into a code that can be processed by a computer. This code actually represents the music in numbered, i.e., digital, form instead of in sound wave patterns. During playback the human ear is unable to perceive the transi-

tions between the individually sampled, discrete steps because of their extremely short duration.

At Stanford University these same sampling principles were applied in the creation of the Stanford Artificial Intelligence Language (SAIL) which allows a computer to speak to its inventors in English. The same SAIL techniques were subsequently applied to Armenian with somewhat less success. The important fact is that our technology is now developing microelectronic processors that will produce speech — albeit with some problems from time to time.

Another application of digital technology that will have considerable impact on our lives as soon as it becomes affordable is digital television (or more accurately digital video since WQXR is already using digital audio). In theory, once digitized, a signal — whether sound or vision — will not become distorted with subsequent processing. This will eliminate such problems as the fuzzy sounds produced in the multiple duplication or dubbing of tape recordings.

Digital television equipment was demonstrated during the 1978-79 engineering trade shows. It was described as being able to restore imperfect signals, store single frames (still pictures) as well as multiple frames (motion pictures) for retrieval at any desired rate, and eliminate the incompatibility of standards among different nations' television systems.[10]

Digital television is a process in which 256 levels of intensity found in the standard television camera signal are sampled at regular intervals and are digitally represented by strings of eight zeros and ones (or by a dual combination of sixteen digits for the more sophisticated).[11] In this binary system 00000000 would represent zero level signal (or black), and 11111111 would represent full amplitude (or white). Everything in between would be a shade of gray digitally encoded by such values as 00000010, 00011011, 11101010, etc. One of the current limitations of digital television is that the digitized signal involves from 86 to over 115 million bits of digital information per second, while current digital information processing equipment is limited to under 50 million bits per second. Another limitation is the prohibitive price and lack of easy availability of the digital processing equipment.

It is important to note the number of technological developments that may become obsolete with the perfection and widespread use of digital television. Among them could well be microfilm, slides, motion picture film, videotape recorders, and the currently struggling videodisc.

10. World standards conversion among the American NTSC, French SECAM, and German PAL systems of broadcast television has only recently become a profitable enough venture to attract commercial interest. At the beginning of 1979 it was difficult to count more than three places throughout the world where this conversion could be accomplished. By the end of the year there were a dozen. The process remains expensive for the moment (several hundred dollars per hour), but with competition there is still hope that education may soon benefit from the use of these facilities that allow foreign television programs to be made compatible with American television receivers. For a semi-technical description of the problems see "World Standards Conversion" by Noel S. Copley, in *Video Systems*, 5:10(1979) 12-16.

11. Current technology tends to use digital numbers based on sixteen; these consist of zero through nine plus six more symbols. The reason for this is that more information can be stored in a given amount of space than with simple two-digit, or binary, numbers.

TEXT SYSTEMS

When computers were becoming more numerous during the fifties, there was a tendency to use them primarily for mathematical computation of a scientific nature. Initially, the processing of words rather than numbers was looked upon by computer programmers as a folly, lacking serious purpose. The vastly increased editorial capacity of the newer microelectronic equipment has created a thriving word processing industry whose upper limits have yet to be probed.

Already most newspapers are typeset on electronic equipment, as are the pages of this volume of the *Northeast Conference Reports*. Editing is made easier by a resident dictionary[12] and a series of rules specified by a compact cassette as the hundreds of thousands of characters are recorded on a floppy disk.[13] When the editor approves the contents of the disk, an optical device is placed under disk control as it exposes photographic paper, character by character, until the entire book is in final form for the printer. The automatic control system at work here is the result of microelectronics.

The library sciences have made good use of word processing systems in a variety of configurations. Legal and medical research and information sharing has been greatly facilitated by individual professionals and groups subscribing to a common data base. Such networks have spanned the miles and eliminated hours of laborious and imperfect human search through the growing mass of our society's information explosion.

Other editorial uses of microelectronics extend to the home television receiver. Systems like QUBE (an experiment operated by a division of Warner Communications available to certain areas of Columbus, Ohio), Prestel, CEEFAX, and ORACLE (all products of television-text data retrieval for the consumer in Great Britain), and VISTA (a similar system of electronic newspaper delivery to the home through television receivers to be tested this year in Canada) portend use of home television sets for more than entertainment — but still for the electronic storage of images which is the technological purpose of television.

As microelectronic control systems continue to become more sophisticated and more affordable, it is not impossible to expect that the contents of many libraries of the future will be stored in non-print formats. Those of us who desire the reassurance of printed paper will be provided with hard copy outputs that will take only seconds to retrieve and produce. Already IBM has introduced a commercial version of a copying machine[14] that depends upon variations in light (actually a laser beam under microprocessor control) to establish images which will produce copies of printed text complete with drawings on plain paper. The same company also offers a machine that prints with ink jets.[15] These jets shoot forth minute droplets of ink with a diameter of

12. A resident dictionary consists of an electronic module that contains information on how to hyphenate the printed word. When the end of a line is reached in mid-word, the device consults this dictionary for the correct location of the hyphen.

13. The floppy disk is an inexpensive plastic disc, about the size of a small phonograph record, that is coated with magnetic recording material such as is found on recording tape. The disk allows several hundred thousand bits of information to be recorded or played back. More importantly, it allows the operator to remove it from the machine for storage, shipment, or simply to insert a different disk.

14. IMB 6670 Information Distributor.

15. IBM 6640 Document Printer.

about 60 micrometers (just over two thousandths of an inch) at the rate of approximately 117,000 per second. Under precise microprocessor control, the drops form the familiar letters and numbers of our written language. They can also be made to form unfamiliar alphabetical characters, symbols, line drawings, or anything else for which the control circuits are programmed. The speed with which these two commercially available devices print text onto paper approaches five thousand characters per second. Such a technology is capable of storing an entire collection of books in electronic form and reproducing each of them upon individual demand in less time than it now often takes to find a book on the shelves of a library.

COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTION (CAI) AND COMPUTER MANAGED INSTRUCTION (CMI)

The speed-of-light precision control circuits in microprocessors and the speed with which machines can already print text onto paper — for those who cannot work at a video display terminal — make computer assisted instruction and computer managed instruction economically feasible. These systems, first experimented with during the fifties and sixties and proven to be pedagogically sound, will eventually become economic imperatives. As CAI becomes financially attainable, many aspects of almost all disciplines will be presented to learners through microelectronic control. These learners will be in schools and colleges, at home, and perhaps at work.

To insure a rational implementation of computer assisted instruction and computer managed instruction, educators will need:

(1) Knowledgeable guidance on the availability of equipment and its applicability to perform specific tasks.
(2) Opportunities for inservice training and local facilities for application and maintenance support.
(3) Channels for the exchange of locally produced programs with other institutions. More than a directory, these channels must provide for the discussion of application and development problems (including failures as well as successes!). It is hoped that these exchanges will offer a means of making the different computer languages compatible with one another — a situation which does not exist today.
(4) Released time from teaching duties to write instructional programs and the recognition of this work on a parallel with publication as a bona fide professional contribution.

Author Languages. One hindrance to writing CAI teaching materials is the time that must be devoted to putting the pedagogical ideas into the computer. Microprocessors respond to stimuli far different from human language such as English. To assist in communicating with the computer, the programmer creates an author language which allows the materials writer, who may not be sophisticated in computer programming, to develop CAI materials using everyday terms in human language.

A typical author language for a specific instructional tactic will offer the materials writer the opportunity to enter data, give instructions, test, and provide remedial assistance. All of this is done using ordinary words which are usually mnemonically related to their functions. These words are called prompts, and they make it possible

for the uninitiated to use computers. Typical prompts are of the sort:[16]

TEXT	ANTICIPATED WRONG ANSWER
QUESTION	REPLY TO ANTICIPATED
CORRECT ANSWER	WRONG ANSWER
REPLY TO CORRECT ANSWER	FAILURE MESSAGE
REPLY TO UNANTICIPATED	HINTS OR DICTIONARY
WRONG ANSWERS	HELP

Each of these prompts appears on the electronic display — usually a cathode ray tube similar to a television screen — when the microprocessor is ready to accept the input of some information or tactical decision from the materials writer. Behind them lies a great deal of work on the part of the computer programmer, but they result in simplicity for the materials writer. Creating a versatile author language requires an understanding of the principles of educational methods.

Prompts. For a demonstration of the principles behind prompts let us assume a need to construct a reading comprehension exercise. The initial prompt for storing the exercise is the display of the word TEXT on the screen. This TEXT frame is, in effect, asking the materials writer to enter whatever data constitutes the reading passage. A frequent way of entering these data is by means of a keyboard similar to a typewriter. Other more sophisticated input devices also exist. Suppose our writer entered the following TEXT frame:

TEXT
Le soleil est à la verticale et les deux aiguilles de l'horloge
sont dirigées vers le même point.

The next prompt, after the microprocessor has stored this information will be QUESTION to which we will assume our writer responds as follows:

QUESTION
Quelle heure est-il?

Followed by:

CORRECT ANSWER
Il est midi.

The prompt, REPLY TO CORRECT ANSWER, would provide the writer with the option of extending this type of exercise, ending the practice, or diverting practice to another type of exercise. Normally the REPLY TO CORRECT ANSWER frame will be used to enter some message of positive reinforcement.

The prompt, REPLY TO UNANTICIPATED WRONG ANSWER, presents some difficulty for the writer since it must take into account a very large number of unknown possibilities. Included among these are the orthographic and typographic errors in the student responses, the alternate ways of expressing the right answer, and other complex situations which require some diagnostic routine to offer the student

16. The mnemonic characteristics of prompts as used in author languages allows for them to remind the materials writer of their function in any language, i.e., English, French, German, Chinese, as well as in the symbolic languages used by mathematicians.

remedial assistance. The ANTICIPATED WRONG ANSWER prompts are better defined. Thus:

ANTICIPATED WRONG ANSWER
Il est six heures trente.

REPLY TO ANTICIPATED WRONG ANSWER
Non, il n'est pas six heures trente parce que ce n'est pas le moment où le soleil est à la verticale.

ANTICIPATED WRONG ANSWER
Il est minuit.

REPLY TO ANTICIPATED WRONG ANSWER
Le soleil n'est pas à la verticale à minuit, donc tu as tort.

With practice, the materials writer will determine which of the unanticipated wrong answers occur most frequently and reclassify them among the anticipated wrong answers. This feedback of information from the actual use of the exercise into the exercise itself is a very necessary part of materials writing just as it is also an important part of face-to-face teaching. Its minute, frustrating detail is not as apparent in the real time of the classroom as it is in the protracted solitude of the microprocessor display. Thus, a master teacher who is able to handle a class in true orchestral manner, if able to sit down alone and define each note of that orchestration, should also be a master writer of CAI materials.

The prompt asking for a FAILURE MESSAGE is also important. The student receives this message after a predetermined number of incorrect attempts to give the correct answer. In this message the writer will provide the necessary information and remedial suggestions to overcome the student's difficulties and to facilitate eventual completion either of this exercise or selected alternative exercises. These alternatives may include remedial drills, following which the student might again be presented with the same exercise.

The prompt HINTS OR DICTIONARY allows the writer to offer specific help to the student when the student requests it. This increases the sense of interaction between the materials writer and the student. More importantly, this type of prompt reinforces the student's sense of self-determination since it is self-initiated in situations of need.

The prompt HELP, on the other hand, is designed to assist the writer who is unsure how to respond to a prompt in the author language. When HELP is entered during the writing stage, the author language will provide a plain language explanation of the options available at that point.

Another advantage of author languages for CAI is their computer management routines. While the students are completing the numerous exercises, the microprocessor is keeping track of their progress — both as individuals and as a group. Based on the data, complete statistics may be produced automatically on demand to assess the efficiency of any portion of the instruction. Among the statistics are those of levels of individual or group mastery of the material, time required, and any shortcuts taken by the students in their progression through the material. It is this capacity to maintain academic records, down to individual answers to individual questions, that gives rise to

the term computer managed instruction.

Types of Computers. One can define three types of computers. The commonplace pocket computers costing between $10 and $500 were mentioned in the description of digital calculators and literal vocabulary translators. There are also slightly larger devices known as personal computers. These usually cost over $500 but are still low enough in price to be marketable to individuals. They are so-called stand alone units only capable of being used with identical models. Finally, there are general purpose computers which cost in the five to seven figure range and which have the ability to expand their functions with the addition of more electronics.[17]

Personal Computers. Large or expensive toys are frequently introduced in the United States during the Christmas season, and not too many Christmas seasons have gone by since the introduction of the personal or home computer. The three basic elements of home computers are a keyboard, a video display similar to a television set, and a microprocessor, which is often the least apparent but is, technologically, the most important and sophisticated component. Additional peripheral equipment includes memory units that allow the computer enthusiast to store data on compact cassettes or floppy disks, printers that provide hard copy output in addition to the video display, and interfacing devices for transmitting computer data over the telephone. Prices start at just over $500; the incremental cost of accessories makes personal computers a hobby for the affluent.

Personal computers are, however, more than space age toys. They are serious technological devices whose task is to process information electronically, i.e., to make logical decisions in accordance with instructions that have been provided by the programmer. This information is entered into the computer memory through the keyboard or from a compact cassette or floppy disk. Sometimes the information is entered through a modem, a device that allows the computer to communicate over the telephone with a compatible computer. The integral microprocessor then responds to the entered information in accordance with a stored computer program (such as the author language program already described) and provides an output on the screen of the electronic display, on paper, or in magnetic form for storage.

The comparatively low cost of personal computers has made them increasingly popular in classrooms across the nation. For under $1000 a high school mathematics teacher can now demonstrate the basics of computer logic in the classroom using programs available from the manufacturer. Slightly more complex demonstrations of mathematical principles require the time to write materials, but soon these microprocessors will be very common in secondary learning resource inventories. Similar interest is also being shown at the college and university level. Faculty and academic resource personnel alike are discovering that for rather little initial investment, small computers such as a PET, TRS-80, or APPLE II can be on their office desk. Those who have a valid application for such devices are likely to be happy; those who anticipated finding a use will probably be disappointed.

17. This three-way classification of the computer spectrum may be too simplistic for some readers particularly when dealing with the larger units. The common characteristic of what are referred to as general purpose computers is the capacity to be modified. The smaller units are sold as pre-packaged units with accessories but without modifications.

From the sales data, one can venture a guess that there are now several thousand personal computers in classrooms around the nation. Most of these are probably coveted by the teachers responsible for acquiring them and have little relation to the school computers that write salary checks, maintain grade records, address alumni bulletins, or solve sophisticated scientific research problems. They are small units available to very few students and might be reminiscent of 'the big dictionary' in the corner of the English classroom.

Foreign language education is able to make good use of the personal computer. Although we deal with words in what we consider to be a 'true' sense instead of mathematical words or logical strings,[18] the microprocessor in the medium sized personal computer will handle enough data to sensitize us to its potential. (Note: The lowest priced personal computers have limited information storage capacity and should be carefully examined by the educator who desires to use linguistic input, lest this storage become full and halt any experimentation beyond the most primitive; advice on these computer limitations is easily available from colleagues who have had contact with them.)

Current interest in instruction through the use of personal computers is being shown by some foreign language teachers. It is fragmented and suffers from professional ailments which seem to afflict any non-publishing venture: projects are hurriedly accomplished and are competing for time with normal classroom preparations or professional research.

Foreign language CAI work with personal computers is poorly reported, but among those making an effort are linguists, computer programmers, classroom teachers of many languages (but possibly a majority of them are ESL teachers), and those who are intrigued by games. Saint Louis University has developed a sample series of vocabulary exercises and word games for Spanish students. The principles are all sound, but the small volume of material completed would seem to restrict it thus far to a very subordinate position in the curriculum. This programming uses a TRS-80 personal computer which costs just under one thousand dollars in 1979. The programs — and therefore the exercises and games — are compatible only with other TRS-80 equipment.

The University of Minnesota Computer Center (which is both a building to house a large computer and a professional staff to develop computational technique) has made investigations with a personal computer manufactured by Terak. They have completed the programming of a beginning classical Greek language course. The limitation of this project is that there is no computer management component. Thus, progress through the classical Greek CAI is dependent upon human monitoring and record keeping. There is also an incomplete project at Minnesota to produce programming for German CAI using personal computers. Implementation on an experimental basis is taking place in St. Paul schools.

Additionally, a government agency language school has been considering plans for the use of personal computers in foreign language CAI. Although this has not been funded, reports indicate that the use of these microprocessors is advantageous when

18. Logical strings are series of symbols representing logical operations and have no correspondence with such systems as spoken language.

employed with self-correcting exercise programs similar to workbooks. The limitations of the small machines — their lack of computer management and diagnostic routines — seem to be unimportant.

The need for documentation of our independent work is great. If it were possible to know of the successes and failures our colleagues have had in using personal computers for CAI, we could all benefit. But we seldom choose to publish information concerning our failures. Also, considering the vast amounts of time necessary for writing successful teaching materials, whether these be in electronic or print media, our society imposes a proprietary interest on much of our work, and we find ourselves selling the fruits of our intellect by the copy.

Thus, over the next few years we will probably see most of the personal computers in foreign languages remain behind drawn curtains in our individual classrooms and offices. They will provide a small orienting influence which will make us more familiar with their principles, but their use in contact with students seems unlikely on any large scale.

General Purpose Computers. The programming and processing procedures used by personal computers are also applied in general purpose computers, from the small minicomputers to the giant multi-million dollar processors. The difference is that personal computers are limited in capacity, derived from what industry can produce inexpensively, while the large devices, vastly more powerful, are able to adapt to a wider variety of unique applications. They are not simple keyboard-display units and usually require a room or building for their exclusive occupancy. One often finds them spread out across a campus or throughout a research facility. The peripherals offered for accessory use have established an entire new branch of American industry in the past decade. One can buy equipment to communicate with the computer through surrogate pens, touch, optical sensing of printed words (or a series of bars on the mayonnaise label), voice, and a multitude of other media.

The history of such general purpose computers in CAI is an interesting one. About twenty years ago IBM began to survey the feasibility of marketing educational computers and introduced the first commercially available author language, Coursewriter I. IBM also collaborated with the German department at the State University of New York at Stony Brook in what is regarded as pedagogically successful CAI instruction, but the corporation decided that it did not want to enter the CAI market.[19]

Other manufacturers, however, with different objectives, began developing certain aspects of CAI. One of the most frequently cited commercial CAI programs intended for general purpose computers is PLATO (Programmed Logic Automatic Teaching Operation), and foreign languages were in on the ground floor during PLATO development at the University of Illinois.

Now in its fifth generation of development, PLATO has spread across the nation. It is a computer-based instructional network marketed by the Control Data Education Corporation. PLATO allows customers who do not own a general purpose computer

19. The Stony Brook CAI work with IBM proved that CAI is a pedagogically useful tactic — both for instruction and for the management of instruction. The IBM decision not to enter the CAI market was based on economic factors of making a profit by selling the computers to education. In the intervening years, the new technologies have changed these economic factors.

to share time on a central processor through telephone communication links. These customers are usually large schools or districts, colleges, or universities although there is nothing (except money) to prevent a single building from using PLATO. In 1978, PLATO terminals were operational on the campuses of the Universities of Arizona, Colorado, Delaware, Florida State, Quebec, Minnesota, and Illinois in addition to secondary schools in Baltimore and Houston and some 50 Control Data Corporation learning centers throughout the country.

Text, graphics, and animation are displayed on the PLATO screen; random access audio disks are offered, and students respond either through a keyboard or by touching the display screen. PLATO is used on university campuses, in multiple buildings of public school districts, in adult learning centers, and in prisons. In addition to a small amount of foreign language programming (initially about 2% of the total available material), there are programs offered by the system for dozens of general and specialized educational applications.

The designers of PLATO made it a time-sharing system dependent upon a central computer. The current operators of PLATO claim that this CYBER 73-24 computer in Urbana, Illinois, provides an advantage as it permits the intercommunication of information among those who use it. Thus, they claim, one user will profit from the experience of the others. A disadvantage of this arrangement is the very high communications cost, i.e., the telephone bill.

The same corporation that is responsible for the development of PLATO, Control Data of Minneapolis, also provided the hardware for a large, developmentally interesting project in its own state. The Minnesota Educational Computing Consortium operates a Control Data CYBER 70 main-frame computer in Minneapolis that supports the CAI operations among the over six hundred public secondary schools in the state. Approximately 85% of the schools have one or two terminals at their disposal. A large number of these terminals are APPLE II personal computers which, according to the manufacturer, have the capability of storing instructional routines during the time they are taking instructions from the CYBER 70 computer and then disconnecting to allow student use as smaller, stand alone units.

In September 1979 a Computer Augmented German Instruction program was instituted throughout Minnesota schools on the Consortium system. Normal telephone lines were used to communicate with the CYBER 70, and between three and four hundred terminals were served at once with access to the twenty-four unit CAI program containing a resident dictionary (German to English)[20] and full computer managed instruction routines such as attendance, progress, etc. The material dealt with was described as written structure and grammar as an adjunct to the classroom. Typed printout with the full upper and lower case German alphabet was available. The results of this project, especially the reaction of German teachers, will be an important contribution to our literature sometime in the next few years.

The SAIL project at Stanford University that originally experienced difficulties synthesizing spoken Armenian, is reported to be designed for the eventual objective of offering CAI language courses on a nationwide basis. Eventually the program will provide visual display terminals combined with earphones carrying the computer syn-

20. The resident dictionary allows students to gloss unknown words as part of their study on the terminal.

thesized speech. There is no plan to develop a computer input system that would respond to the speech of the student. While the Stanford Institute of Mathematical Studies in the Social Sciences continues to develop a cooperative program with SUNY at Binghamton, the chairman of French at Stanford has been quoted in the press as having said, "I don't personally view computers as a threat. There is enough of a social process and an infinite open-endedness to language that a computer can never master."[21] His view is not one formed in an ivory tower since he has taught a computer aided French course. He is probably right, in this writer's opinion.

Another example of a general purpose computer that serves a specific foreign language education purpose is the Hazeltine NOVA installed at Brigham Young University.[22] This central processor, restricted to on-campus CAI, serves thirty-two student terminals in a learning resource center. Each terminal is equipped with a Sony color monitor and special keyboard designed to speed communication of routine instructions by means of specific function keys. The system is able to handle French, Spanish, German, Italian, and English as a Second Language. It is used in everyday instruction as a reinforcement of classroom presentations. Some 2000 students are served from among the 27,000 enrolled at the University.

Just as the Minnesota CYBER 70 is for the exclusive use of schools within that state, the NOVA is limited to the Brigham Young University campus. This is in contrast to the geographic mobility of such systems as PLATO that can be installed anywhere electronic communication is possible. It must be remembered that these different systems were developed as technological solutions to different sets of problems.

Unanswered questions remain concerning the ultimate value and feasibility of computer assisted language instruction on a large scale basis:

(1) Will the high initial costs and maintenance budgets of large computers be sufficiently offset by the sheer computing power they possess to make large scale CAI economically feasible on more than a local — or even statewide — basis?

(2) Will the relative economy of the personal computer make it acceptable enough to teachers so as to provide an economical solution for instructing numbers of students across the nation?

(3) Will the eventual merging of the two types of computers, i.e., the personal computer with the ability to return to the large computer from time to time for 'instructions,' be a viable way to provide CAI in the last decade of the twentieth century?

Beyond the Frontier: An Inconclusive Ending

Much of the material presented in this Report will seem simplistic to those who work with computers and technology in their daily educational tasks. To others much of it

21. Bill Carlsen, "Computer Will Teach Language Courses." *The New York Times*, (April 3, 1979), C5.

22. The Brigham Young University TICCIT (Time-Shared Interactive Computer Controlled Information Television) is that university's answer to on-campus CAI. This system offers courses in English, Spanish, German, French, Italian, and four other non-language subjects.

will seem technical, full of jargon, and unlikely to affect the lives of those involved with linguistic and literary pursuits or with the daily struggle to exist in the schools and on the campuses of the world.

It is these latter educators who must be awakened to the facts of late twentieth century socioeconomic problems that will soon produce a deep change in our life styles and in the educational goals and methods accompanying them. Consider — without the panic of the press — the popular crises of present-day news articles: inflation, energy depletion, and international affairs. Is it illogical to project situations when schools as we now know them will become too expensive to build? When it will be too wasteful to transport students to schools on buses as we do now? When it will be an impossibility to continue teaching everyone all the subjects now thought of as traditional?

Learning is partially a form of organizing information. This is information processing of a very human kind. The accelerating developments of technology will change the way we learn as well as what we learn. It would be foolhardy to advance a schedule for this change, but it will be exciting eventually to witness the easy, instantaneous, and economical exchange of information among researchers, schools, and colleges, across international boundaries and even between Earth and extraterrestrial locations.

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New Approaches to Assessment of Language Learning

Present Status of Assessment

As a profession, we know much more about language testing techniques and about potential applications of data for student feedback and program development than we have yet put into practice; this is a result of a variety of political, economic, and human factors. Consider, as a starting point, the following scenario, representing what may be considered a 'typical' classroom today.

Scenario 1: Ms. Jones

Ms. Jones[1] teaches Spanish in a suburban, public senior high school. She teaches five classes daily, with 25 to 35 students in each class; she has four separate preparations.

Her classroom is attractive and decorated with posters, pictures, and two bulletin boards depicting festivals in Mexico and Spain. Colorful piñatas in a wide variety of shapes hang from the ceiling. Chalkboards line two sides of the room. Atop a front board we read: 'Test on Unit 6 on March 16.' On a side board we see:

Quiz Grades			
90-100	(A)	3	
80-89	(B)	12	
60-79	(C)	6	
50-59	(D)	3	Please see me
Under 50	(F)	1	

As students enter the classroom, they glance at the boards. Some mutter, "Oh, no! I know what I got," and "I hope I got a B this time — last time I missed by one point!" They sit quickly in their assigned seats and are quiet as Ms. Jones begins handing back the quiz papers with such comments as: "Nice, Mary," "Good, Jim," "Better than last time, Jeff," "Please see me after class, Mike." Students examine their scores and errors. Mike looks depressed and glances halfheartedly at his many red marks. Michel and Monica do likewise. The class atmosphere is generally businesslike, but relaxed as well.

1. Appreciation to several students in a University of Minnesota Ph.D. seminar, who discussed ideas contained in this Report and made many suggestions: Susanna Brütsch, especially on self-evaluation; William Donohue, especially for 'human dimension' comments; Howard Hathaway, especially on computer assisted testing and the 1990 scenario; Mary E. Johnson; Hugh McGuigan; and Walter Pederson.

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"Remember, class, we have the unit test this Friday, March 16."

Groans.

"What will we have to know, Ms. Jones?"

"How much will it count?"

"We'll review tomorrow and Thursday; if you did all your homework and studied the book, you'll do fine. In this unit we have been concentrating on saying things about past happenings, so most of the grammar sections of the test will focus on past tenses."

"Do we have to know *all* the irregular verbs?"

"Of course. They might not all be on the test, but you should know all of the ones in this unit just in case."

"Will accents count off again?"

"What do you think? Okay. Now, don't worry; we'll review . . . get out your homework, please . . ." and the class continues, now in Spanish.

Throughout the year, each unit of the standard textbook has culminated in a unit test, taken from tests the publishers provide with the book. They include a listening comprehension section as well as a variety of other items covering the grammar, vocabulary, and idioms of the unit. Frequent short quizzes, prepared by Ms. Jones, test knowledge of verb endings, tenses, prepositions, idioms, and vocabulary. Dictations are also given frequently. Fortunately, Ms. Jones has a file of quizzes from past years, so she doesn't have to recreate all of the materials for each new test.

The results of quizzes and tests are entered in Ms. Jones's gradebook in neat rows of A's, B's, C's, along with a series of checks and minuses for homework assignments turned in on time, plusses each week for recitation and participation, and attendance marks.

Now, in March, Ms. Jones knows the strengths and weaknesses of her students. At the beginning of the year, they came from first-year classes in three different junior high schools, two using the same text (but finishing different numbers of units in the book) and the third using another text series. It took Ms. Jones until Christmas to get the students to the same achievement level. They worked hard with a grammar review text and the class is now an excellent one. They do their homework, and they score well on tests, except for a few students. Ms. Jones helps students with problems, but the poor ones seem to fall farther and farther behind. At the end of the year she will give the same test covering the entire year's work to both second-year classes, since they will be combined into a single Level Three class next year.

Ms. Jones will compute grades by hand. Student report cards show a single letter grade for each subject. It bothers Ms. Jones to note that not all the 'B' students are really equal in ability and achievement, but she has to conform to the grading system used by the school.

She conducts most of every class period in the Spanish language, and she is considered a very good teacher by her students, who like her and consider her a friend, by parents, administrators, and other teachers. A large proportion of the students will go to college, and parents are concerned about their children's education. They want teachers to set high standards of performance so that their children will be adequately prepared for college. Most usually go to school for conferences with each of their children's teachers; rarely do they question the assessment or reporting systems. They, too, feel that Ms. Jones is doing a very good job.

Ms. Jones is fluent in Spanish, and she wants very much to be a good teacher. She is taking coursework toward an M.A. in Spanish during summer sessions and on Saturdays. She has never taken a course in testing — in fact no education courses at all as a graduate student, since the Spanish M.A. is almost exclusively a literary degree.

Ms. Jones is not equipped to move beyond the status quo in her testing and evaluation procedures. She has learned a great deal about testing from other teachers, and she frequently consults them when computing course grades. She feels somewhat uncomfortable about giving a single letter grade in Spanish, but does feel that she has adequate knowledge about her students' Spanish achievement to assign the grades. She tried testing oral skills a few times, and found such assessment very time-consuming. However, she continues to ask first-year students to memorize dialogues, and recite them for her. She has also tried a nationally-standardized test twice, but found that it does not seem appropriate to the content she has covered in her classes; consequently, she feels that those results might not be fair to her students or to her program. She is aware of the fact that learning seems to be more effective when she tells students the objectives of the unit they will study, and she does so regularly.

One must conclude that this is an effective language program, typical of many affluent suburban situations today. This setting has been chosen in order to permit examination of a program which has few of the administrative and financial barriers faced by language teachers in less affluent settings. Thus, Ms. Jones is well-prepared in terms of the Spanish language, and she seems to have good teaching techniques. But with better preparation in assessment procedures and more clearly defined relationships between course goals and evaluation systems, she could be much more effective.

As a profession, we (teachers, educators, professional leaders, and textbook authors and publishers) have failed Ms. Jones to some extent by neglecting to provide her with better teaching preparation and by not making available adequate instruments for evaluating student learning in her program.

Future Scenario Based on Today's Knowledge

What do we already know about language testing that would enable Ms. Jones to plan and assess her program more effectively? Is a potential 1990 scenario as utopian as we might think at first glance? How can teachers build on existing knowledge to prepare for the decade ahead?

Before moving to the exploration of what development may be necessary to get us to a future scenario, let us consider what we do know that can serve as a solid base. In many cases, it will be clear that identification and development of our knowledge base lead *directly* to the future scene; in others, such development will serve as a bridge leading ultimately, but not directly, to the realization of the future scenario. If we do not understand the implications of present knowledge of assessment and take immediate steps to implement what we know, future language classrooms will never be fully effective.

FACT 1: OBJECTIVES AND TEST CONGRUENCE

We are aware of the close conceptual and practical interrelationships among program goals, classroom objectives, class activities, and assessment.

As recently as 20 years ago, there was no such awareness. Seminal contributions of Carroll,[2] Bloom,[3] Gagné[4] and Krathwohl et al.[5] laid the groundwork for development of the so-called mastery model, and led to major contributions in the foreign language field by Valette,[6] Valette and Disick,[7] Steiner,[8] and others. While an individualized 'mastery' approach for each student exists in few classrooms today, the influence of the mastery model has been far-reaching and has paved the way for the concern for each student's optimal progress in all aspects of language learning. Thus, it is not farfetched to assume that our concern with *communication* in the 1980 classroom might not have arisen, had we not become aware that the fully individualized classroom could not meet the students' need to learn a language as a means of communicating personal ideas to living people.

Kibler et al.[9] analyze a wealth of research studies on the relationship of specification of objectives and student learning, and find the results to be inconclusive. Reasons for specifying objectives to students include:

(1) focus on what students do rather than on what teachers do in the classroom and focus on expected end performance;
(2) more clearly-specified evaluation of student performance;
(3) closer scrutiny of all elements of language programs;
(4) better articulation among schools which have district-wide objectives; and
(5) easier communication with parents and administrators about the language program.[10]

Since the testing program used in a classroom often represents actual program objectives more clearly than written statements of objectives do, the usual classroom today, to judge from tests and evaluation techniques, is not concerned with communication to any great extent, despite lip service and written objectives to the contrary. It is a sad fact that the thousands of hours spent preparing 'behavioral objectives' have not always

2. John B. Carroll, "A Model of School Learning." *Teachers College Record*, 64(1963), pp. 723-33.

3. B. S. Bloom, ed., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals*. Handbook 1. *Cognitive Domain* (New York: McKay, 1956).

4. R. M. Gagné, *The Conditions of Learning* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965).

5. D. R. Krathwohl, B. S. Bloom, and B. B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals*. Handbook 2. *Affective Domain* (New York: McKay, 1964).

6. Rebecca M. Valette, *Modern Language Testing* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1967; Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1977).

7. Rebecca M. Valette and Renée S. Disick, *Modern Language Performance Objectives and Individualization: A Handbook* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1972).

8. Florence Steiner, *Performing with Objectives* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1975).

9. Robert J. Kibler, Donald J. Cegala, Larry L. Barker, and David T. Miles, *Objectives for Instruction and Evaluation* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1974).

10. Helen L. Jorstad, "Objectives for New Programs: A Thematic Approach in Second-Language Learning." *Foreign Language Learning, Today and Tomorrow: Essays in Honor of Emma M. Birkmaier*, ed. Jermaine D. Arendt, Dale L. Lange, and Pamela J. Myers (New York: Pergamon, 1979).

been wisely spent, since equal time was not given to tailoring the testing program to test specific objectives. We have never realized the full implications of the fact that there should be close congruence between tests and objectives in the language classroom. Ms. Jones would say that her classroom activities are concerned principally with communication, since the students are spending most of their Spanish class periods listening to Spanish and using it orally. It is only upon close scrutiny of the classroom activity that one sees that written and oral communication are not really tested — and not really taught, either. The students do spend much time speaking Spanish, but they respond principally to Ms. Jones's questions, go over grammatical exercises orally which they have prepared at home, practice dialogues in their lessons until they "know them by heart," and the like. Tests are focused mainly on the same grammatical principles, and reflect the mechanical aspects of using language which Rivers[11] calls "skill-getting" activities.

In any future classroom, communicative objectives would be an important part of each day's work, and they would be tested frequently as well (e.g., "You will tell a close friend that you would like to work with her on a project.").

In quiz and test preparation, teachers should be able to create tables of specifications to ensure assessment of all objectives, including communication objectives. Valette shows an excellent example of such a table for planning a literature test.[12]

Figure 1 shows a simple example of such a table for a beginning French class which (1) reflects classroom objectives; (2) selects test content and a context for the content from actual classroom content and activities; (3) assigns appropriate weighting to each of the various activities to be tested; and (4) identifies the skill modality to be tested. Numbers in the cells represent either total points or the number of items to be included for each content area and objective combination.

Figure 1: TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS

Objectives / Content	Recognize in Reading	Use in Writing	Use Orally	Comprehend Oral Material	Total Points
Family Members	5	5	10	10	30
Numbers	3	2	5	5	15
avoir (to have)	10	5	8	5	28
Gender of Adjectives	5	5	7	10	27
Total Points	23	17	30	30	100

We can see that in the test 23% of the points will be for reading activities (5% on family members, 3% numbers in context, 10% recognition of *avoir* forms, and 5% gender of adjectives). Similarly, 17% of the points will be for guided writing activities, such as fill-in-the-blanks, answering questions, etc.; 30% will be for an oral section; and 30% will be listening comprehension items. We can also see the distribution of actual linguistic content in the test: 30% of points are on family members; 15% on numbers; 28% on forms of '*avoir*,' and 27% on gender of adjectives. It is assumed that the

11. Wilga M. Rivers, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of French* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975), pp. 3-5.
12. Valette, *op. cit.*, p. 289.

percentages also reflect the proportion of class time devoted to each activity using the content of the unit. If this were a 100-point test, it is clear how items would be distributed. This procedure guarantees the best 'fit' of a test to actual class objectives, linguistic content, and activities.

Students might also rate themselves weekly or monthly using a self-evaluation scale covering communicative aspects of language use. Figures 2 and 3 illustrate samples of

Figure 2: Example of Functional Descriptions for Use in a Student Self-Evaluation Grid (SSE) in Speaking.

To the Student: *In each column below,* circle the description at the *one* level which you think best describes your speaking ability in French.

Level	Vocabulary	Structures	Pronunciation	Fluency
M	Can use orally only a few words, in isolation and not attached to meaning.	Entirely unable to use intelligible sentence orally.	Unintelligle to native speaker—'English' pronunciation of French words.	Halting; conversation not possible.
N	Orally controls a few 'set' expressions—greetings, name, age. Other words & meanings isolated, do not come readily to mind.	Can use 'set expressions' and subject/verb sentences learned. No control of grammar; often gives wrong information.	Mainly 'English' pronunciation of French words, especially [R] and all vowels. Very difficult to understand. English intonation patterns.	Slow; sometimes puts sentence together, especially 'set expressions,' but cannot sustain a conversation.
O	Can use orally vocabulary to discuss familiar topics: class activities, buying meals & eating; health, weather.	Can use present tense, simple statements, & questions, as well as set expressions; frequent errors in message conveyed.	Frequent errors; very 'heavy' American accent, but vowels are sometimes tense. [y] sound not clear; American [R] sound.	Strained & halting; can use short, memorized sentences in converation, but leaves many statements unfinished.
P	Can converse in social & classroom settings; can use vocabulary in O, and also daily schedule, directions, family. A few idioms.	Usually conveys correct message in simple sentences, using present. Sometimes passé composé correct. Some control of word order.	Many mispronunciations can be understood with careful listening. A few misunderstandings of intended message.	Slow, strained; continuous conversation possible; much groping for words.
Q	Can use vocabulary of all above levels; can talk around unknown word; some idioms	Fair control; uses present, future, passé comp.; many errors; meaning clear.	Obviously 'foreign;' some problems [y] & [R]. Message usually understood by native.	Hesitant, jerky; conversation maintained; some sentences unfinished.

possible self-evaluation grids for speaking and writing. Figure 4 illustrates the relationship between the Foreign Service Institute scale of "Absolute Proficiency Ratings"[13] and a scale of minimal proficiency levels which should be created and

13. FSI scales in *Manual for Peace Corps Language Testers* (Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service, no date); also discussed by John L. D. Clark, *Foreign-Language Testing: Theory and Practice* (Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development, 1972), pp. 121-25.

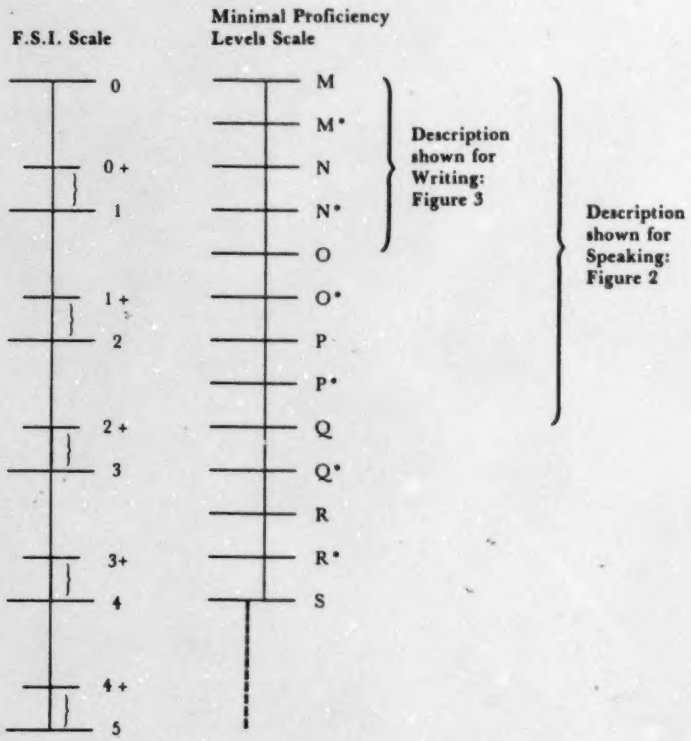
Figure 3: Example of Functional Descriptions for Use in a Student Self-Evaluation Grid (SSE) in Writing.

To the Student: *In each column below,* circle the description at the *one* level which you think best describes your writing ability. Imagine that you have been asked to write a short composition on a topic you know well and in which you are interested.

Level	Vocabulary	Structures	Orthography	Fluency
M	Lacking totally.	A few random words; no sentences; no meaning.	*Copied* words correct; no others understood.	None.
M•	Using glossary, a few words appropriately selected; can write "set expressions" memorized.	Articles wrong; verb endings lacking. Can write memorized sentences; others have no meaning.	Copied or memorized words correct. Otherwise, gross errors prevent understanding message.	Few sentences intelligible; very little produced.
N	Using glossary, can select some appropriate nouns. Vocabulary: greetings, numbers, age used correctly without glossary. Many inappropriate verbs.	Subject-Verb understandable. Controls verb endings in regular "er" in present & avoir & être with some error. Pronouns usually right; meaning conveyed, but frequent "gaps" in understanding.	Frequent gross errors except in copied or memorized materials. Message can be deciphered with difficulty.	Given specified time, some sentences written which are understandable.
N•	Using glossary, selects some words needed. *Without* glossary, uses vocab. in above, & some routine activities about self.	Simple sentences in pres. future, with some errors in agreement, & some irregular verbs studied. "English" word order; but meaning usually apparent.	Frequent errors except in copied of memorized material. Message can be understood, however.	Can produce several sentences which are related to each other.
O	Without glossary, uses accurately nouns & function words to express ideas about above topics & daily or routine activities about self & others.	Simple sentences in present, future, passé composé, using regular "er" "ir," "re" verbs, & irregular verbs studied. "English" word order frequent; a few complex sentences correct using "que" & "qui" clauses.	Frequent spelling errors, especially when using vocabulary & structures not well-learned previously. Message clear.	Can produce short composition which is logical & meaningful in specified time.

validated in all skill areas, receptive and productive, for language learners. Such descriptions can then be used as the basis for preparing discrete item and global proficiency tests in both perception and production of a second language. It can be seen that students reaching Level O in a high school program could score in the 1 to 1 + range on the FSI scale. With national effort, such 'absolute proficiency' ratings would be useful for articulation horizontally among schools at each level (i.e., from one high school or college to another) and vertically among various institutional levels (from junior high school to high school to college). A student entering a college program with ratings of Q• in speaking, Q• in listening, O• in writing, and R in reading (with

Figure 4: Relationship Between F.S.I. Scale and Minimal Proficiency Levels Scale. Statements of "Absolute Proficiency" can be written for any second language learner at any level.



similar specification of levels in vocabulary, structure, fluency, and pronunciation or orthography in each skill area) could be placed appropriately in college classes. College-level proficiency goals would also be defined within the same scale.

Figure 5 illustrates the relationships among skill areas. As students build competence, they are assumed to be developing in all areas, reinforcing one another. If the 'cone' is sliced at any angle, the resulting cross-section shows their status in each language area (Figure 6). Identification of competence would be based on comparisons of a student's performance with complete proficiency descriptions.

Language skills are seen to develop along a continuum. The division of five FSI levels into smaller, more detailed steps with descriptions of specific language behaviors at each step, places the student within reach of rewards, and thus provides a psychological boost. It also permits both the student and the teacher to see progress in the use of language.

Validation of such scales for reading, listening, speaking, writing, and cultural understanding needs to be carried out for secondary school populations; studies of their appropriateness for young students also need to be undertaken, since such studies do

Figure 5: Relationships Among Skill Areas, in Relation to F.S.I. Rating Scale from 0 (no proficiency) to 5 (equal to educated native speaker of the language).

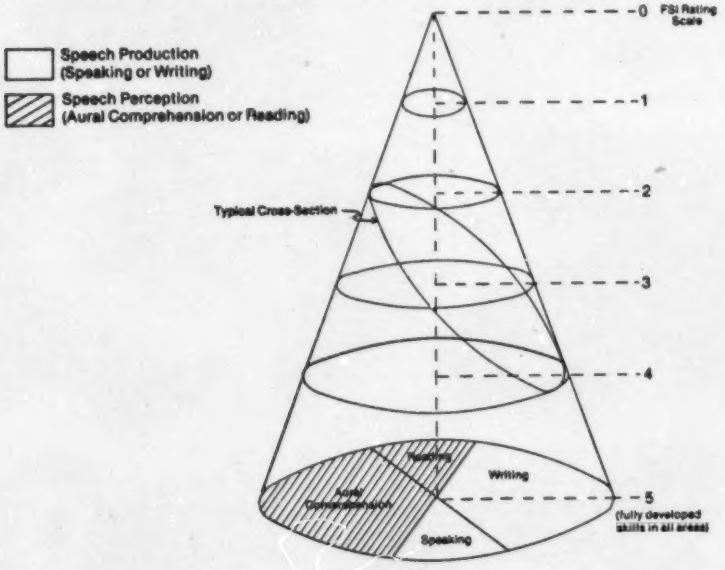
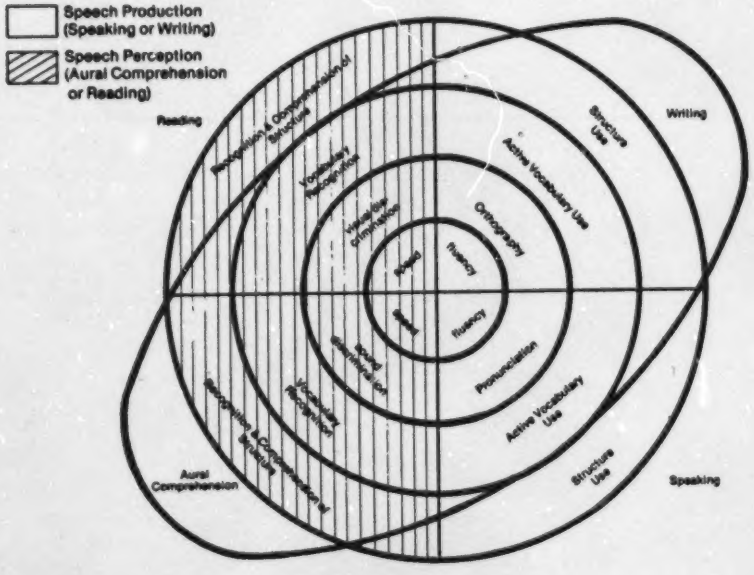


Figure 6: Cross-Section of Cone Shown in Figure 5, at Any Point Along the 0-to-5 Rating Scale.



not now exist. Studies of college-aged students (Brütsch,[14] Shohamy[15]) have shown that self-evaluation is highly effective and might be used for initial placement decisions. It should be clear, however, that self-evaluation is not intended to replace teacher evaluation of students, but rather to supplement it and help students to appreciate the progress they are making toward use of the language.

FACT 2: HOW TO PREPARE ITEMS

We know a great deal about preparing good test questions to assess foreign language learning objectives, especially in reading and grammar.

Since Lado's landmark book on language testing,[16] ushering in the possibility of testing discrete elements of language, excellent suggestions have followed from Clark,[17] Harris,[18] and Valette[19] on constructing appropriate testing instruments in all areas. In her second edition, Valette[20] has enriched the profession still more by suggesting means for testing more fully literature, culture, and oral language use.

Yet most tests and quizzes used in classes today are limited to grammar items, dictation (purportedly to check writing ability, but more likely to test memory for details), and, in some cases, listening comprehension. As pointed out by Valette,[21] such listening and reading test items are often simple vocabulary checks, and the student's ability to comprehend a spoken or written message using a variety of cues is not tested. Most tests which accompany textbooks are of this type as well, and teachers, overloaded with preparations and students, often have little time to prepare adequate classroom quizzes and tests. Like Ms. Jones, they rely heavily on textbook publishers and files of tests from previous years. Although we have the expertise and computer storage facilities to build banks of objectives and related test items that can be easily retrieved when needed, little progress has been made toward creating and utilizing such banks in foreign languages.

14. Susanna M. Brütsch, Convergent/Discriminant Validation of Prospective Teacher Proficiency in Oral and Written Production of French by Means of the *MLA-Cooperative Foreign Language Proficiency Tests: French,* Direct Proficiency Tests for Teachers (TOP and TWP), and Self-Ratings. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1979.

15. Elana Shohamy, Investigation of the Concurrent Validity of the Oral Interview with Cloze Procedure for Measuring Proficiency in Hebrew as a Second Language. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1978.

16. Robert Lado, *Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests* (London: Longmans, Green, 1961).

17. Clark, *op. cit.*

18. David P. Harris, *Testing English as a Second Language* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969).

19. Valette, *op. cit.* (First Edition, 1966).

20. Valette, *op. cit.* (Second Edition, 1977).

21. Rebecca M. Valette, "Developing and Evaluating Communication Skills in the Classroom," in *Developing Communication Skills: General Considerations and Specific Techniques,* Ed. Elizabeth Joiner and Patricia Westphal (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978), pp. 89-105.

FACT 3: STANDARDIZED TESTS

We know how to build, standardize, and validate instruments for language testing on a large-scale basis.

Yet it is also a fact that standardized instruments of all types are now largely out of date. Most were created in the late fifties and early sixties, when emphasis in most classes was on a different (audio-lingual) philosophy of teaching, and when classroom materials reflected that philosophy. With few exceptions, even the available tests for teachers have not been revised.[22] Moreover, the norms provided for interpreting the test results have not been updated since their initial development. Both student populations and language programs of fifteen or more years ago were quite different from those of today. Standardized norm-referenced instruments are still needed for program development and articulation purposes, and we need a national effort to update what we have or to build new tests.

FACT 4: HARDWARE

Hardware and technological devices for teaching are extensive. We also know that they can be used for teaching and testing second languages.

In general, we do not use the latest technological advancements because (1) software for using them is lacking; (2) teachers do not have adequate time to learn how to use them; and (3) school districts are not able at this time to provide fewer, smaller language classes so that teachers can learn about and use the new devices. So, computer terminals stay in mathematics departments or in school offices, their existence and applications largely unexplored by language teachers. Nor have we provided appropriate workshops and courses for teachers to learn about programming, or even about using the few programs to enrich language teaching that do exist.

With regard to other technical developments, many teachers have tried using videotape in their language classes, since the equipment is usually available in schools, despite the fact that there is little help in the professional literature directed specifically at using videotape in second-language learning. We sometimes use short wave radio in language classes, and there are some articles and books describing possible applications of such devices to language and culture study. In many classrooms, however, even tape recorders, overhead projectors, and films or slides are novelties because teachers simply do not have the time required to plan for their most effective use.

22. The *MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students* (Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service, 1966) later became known as *MLA-Cooperative Foreign Language Proficiency Tests: Forms HA, HB,* although their content did not change. They remain the only generally available (non-secure) evaluation instrument for teachers, in the commonly taught languages. *The National Teacher Examinations* (Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service) exist in several languages. While originally derived from the MLA battery cited above, they have undergone continued development and standardization, and should receive more widespread attention.

FACT 5: STATISTICAL PROCEDURES

We know how to use test results for making decisions.

Statistical procedures have been simplified for teachers and their application to classroom assessment clearly delineated, both by generalists (Brown,[23] Gronlund,[24] Mehrens and Lehmann[25]) and by language specialists (Valette[26]). As a rule, however, the reporting of test results to students and parents is still usually more subjective and less useful than teachers may realize. We still 'grade on the curve,' often without realizing that a class of 26 students does not often yield a 'normal curve,' and that such grades may thus be spurious. College and university language classrooms are more likely to use such systems, although many secondary teachers also assign grades without really understanding the grading system being used.

Use of the mastery model and reporting systems based on attainment of specific objectives are still rare. Although we certainly know how to give more appropriate and accurate feedback, teachers of languages do not generally do so, largely because the entire secondary curriculum must be graded in the same manner by all teachers. In this case, reform is overdue not just among language teachers but throughout the educational system. Whether such change is possible at a time when parents are asking schools to move back to rigid schedules, 'hard grading,' and basic education is uncertain. Certainly, language teachers can in the interim send home more extensive evaluations of student progress in language along with the letter grades, and hold conferences at frequent intervals with individual students so that they recognize the many facets of language learning and become aware of the progress they are making.

FACT 6: LANGUAGE LEARNING

We know a great deal about individual learning styles in the language learning process.

We know, for example, that not all students respond to the same stimuli in the same way, that some seem to learn language more quickly than others, that some have difficulties writing another language while others learn with difficulty when the oral stimulus does not accompany a written stimulus.[27]

23. Frederick G. Brown, *Principles of Educational and Psychological Testing*, Second Edition, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976).

24. Norman E. Gronlund, *Measurement and Evaluation in Teaching: Third Edition* (New York: Macmillan, 1976).

25. William A. Mehrens and Irvin J. Lehmann, *Measurement and Evaluation in Education and Psychology* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973).

26. Valette, *op. cit.*, Second Edition.

27. For discussion of learning style and use of learning style inventories, see Derek N. Nunney, "Educational Cognitive Style: A Basis for Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction," in *Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction: Learning Styles and Teaching Options*, Ed. Renate A. Schulz (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1977), pp. 1-14. The same volume includes chapters by Harry Reinert and Helen Lepke on the same topic. In addition to her chapter in the 1979 Northeast Conference *Reports*, Carol Hosenfeld has authored "Learning About Learning: Discovering Our Students' Strategies," *Foreign Language Annals*, 9(1976), pp. 117-29; and "The New Student Role: Individual Differences and Implications for Instruction," in *Perspective: A New Freedom*, Ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1975), pp. 129-65 [Vol. 7, ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series].

However, we do not yet know enough about second-language acquisition among adolescents to predict with accuracy which students will eventually learn the language well and which will not.[28] Nor do we know the effects of error correction as an adolescent moves toward autonomous use of language. Therefore, teachers need to continue to rely on intuition to a large extent, while they investigate applications of existing instruments and develop others for more precise help. Until research gives us more answers to questions about how second languages are learned or acquired we must continue to keep open minds. In many classrooms there seems to be an adversary relationship which may be the result of the teacher's or the textbook publisher's attempt to impose a single learning method on students whose learning processes may differ in myriad ways.

FACT 7: ATTITUDES

We know the relationships among aptitude, attitude, and motivation in language study and achievement.

Intuition has always told teachers that if a student has positive attitudes toward a subject he is likely to continue studying it longer and expending more time on it. Yet we have no valid and reliable instruments for assessing attitudes and motivation. The *Foreign Language Attitude Questionnaire*[29] should be revised for easier interpretation and validated for populations of all ages; no other similar instruments are readily available at this time, although some have been used in studies.[30] Nor do we consistently use feedback gleaned from subjective judgment and student comments revealing attitudes for shaping language programs or evaluating them. Teachers, even with such knowledge, usually have inadequate time to create programs and materials geared to students' specific interests. It should not be necessary for every teacher to create his or her own materials; from what we now know, we should be working as a body of professionals to build programs designed to meet individual student needs.

28. Tests of aptitude for second language learning can, of course, give us some of this information.

29. Leon Jakobovits, 1971 Northeast Conference *Reports*. Questionnaires are available from the Northeast Conference in two forms, intended for students who have studied another language and for those who have not studied a language.

30. Cited by Pamela J. Myers in "Motivational Factors and Student Retention in School Foreign Language Programs," in *Teaching the Basics in the Foreign Language Classroom: Options and Strategies: Selected Papers from the 1979 Central States Conference*, Ed. David P. Benseler (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1979), pp. 21-30. The FLEMI (*Foreign Language Enrollment Motivation Inventory*; published by the State Department of Education for the State of Minnesota) was adapted for use in her study of attitudes of students who continue and who do not continue in their study of another language beyond the second year of high school language. The same instrument was adapted for use in a Ph.D. dissertation in progress (Horst Momber, who created the original FLEMI with Percy Fearing) and an M.A. study (Julie Archer), both from the University of Minnesota.

Emerging Issues

ISSUE 1: Assessment Expertise.

Every preservice teacher needs a course in testing and evaluation as a regular part of the program. Inservice workshops are also needed by teacher educators as well as teachers. Simplified item analysis procedures, the use of measures of central tendency and standard deviation to examine results of a test, and procedures for ranking students for assignment of grades (if grades must in fact be assigned) are all rather mysterious for most teachers. Such basic issues as the *validity* of a test or evaluation procedure (Does it do what it is supposed to do? Does it constitute an accurate sample of the body of knowledge being tested?) and of *reliability* (How consistently does the test measure a given level of knowledge?) are unknown. Yet we create tests and quizzes, administer them, grade them, and use the results to make decisions about students. While it is true that many teachers are being reached each year at conferences and through professional publications, the great majority of teachers may not even realize that their decisions are questionable. We must face the fact that our tests, their grading and evaluation, may greatly influence the numbers and kinds of students who study languages. These same factors may well influence our attrition rates and produce negative attitudes toward languages on the part of the general public.

ISSUE 2: Technology.

While hardware in the form of time-sharing computer resources and mini- or microcomputers now exists, software, courseware, and the expertise to create them are not in abundant supply. Nor does the average teacher, whether new or experienced, understand the benefits that access to large computers or minicomputers can provide in the language classroom. This is certainly not intended to deprecate teachers or teacher education programs; it is simply that there seems to be too much involved in learning to be a language teacher to permit in-depth experience with every aspect of teaching and learning.[31] To build toward the 1990 classroom, however, teachers do need the following:

Technological Expertise. It is not far-fetched to suggest that every preservice teacher needs a background course in the use of computers for instruction, or at least personal experience working through the activities of a language program on a computer. For that matter, second language inservice workshops dealing extensively with computer assisted instruction and with record keeping and testing by computer are vitally needed.

Software Development. Some stereotypes we may hold about computer assisted instruction may result from the fact that the original programs tended to be tedious and thus useful only for the most routine mechanical drills. We need to 'humanize' the use of computers for classroom settings. All types of interactive programs should be con-

31. See Report by James W. Dodge in this volume.

sidered, including simulations, puzzles, contests, or games involving one, two, or more students simultaneously. The materials should be exciting and challenging for students. Such programs are difficult and time-consuming to prepare, but this is a tangible area in which external funding sources might be willing to contribute. Teacher educators and those in positions to influence language teaching development also need intensive training programs so that they in turn can help prospective and inservice teachers at all levels of instruction.

ISSUE 3: National Professional Effort Needed.

Performance Level Identification. Teachers of all languages, as a professional body, need to identify rational performance levels for beginning, intermediate, and advanced students in all 'skill' areas, as suggested in Figures 2-4 on pages 126-8 above. Special attention should be given to affective behaviors, objectives dealing with processes for cross-cultural communication and elimination of stereotypes, and productive language use. Such identification would help articulate language programs, ensure universal accomplishment of similar end results, and make possible the development of new kinds of testing instruments and procedures (see Woodford's testimony before the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies.)[32]

Test Development and Standardization. New instruments are needed to assess (1) achievement at each phase or level of language instruction, (2) attitude development and other affective behaviors, and (3) teacher proficiency in the target language and in teaching strategies. Such instruments should include communicative abilities in oral and written form, for placement and diagnostic purposes, as well as for program evaluation. Our current lack of valid and reliable measures in all these areas may be one factor negatively affecting articulation between secondary schools and institutions of higher education. Effective program evaluation, teacher licensure, and other decisions rely on up-to-date instrumentation. Feedback from such instruments would also be invaluable for textbook and materials publishers, school districts, communities, and students; they would also enable closer congruence among identified objectives, evaluation, and classroom activities.

The need for better measures of teacher proficiency may be the most crucial. It may well be that the best-suited individuals are not entering the teaching profession, and that those who do enter are becoming language teachers for the wrong reasons. We may someday be able to identify and measure such traits as flexibility, receptivity to new ideas, and unwillingness to accept cultural stereotypes. Such traits may be more important for effective teaching than love of and success in linguistic and literary studies. It is urgent that the best possible candidates enter the profession at this time, and we have no valid and reliable criteria for selecting them. In terms of language proficiency levels for teachers, we now have access to a number of studies using interviews, cloze procedures, and other 'global' assessment procedures that might be considered for inclusion in a language proficiency battery for teachers and advanced students.

32. Protase E. Woodford, "Directions for Research and Assessment," in *Report of Boston Regional Hearings, May 4, 1979, to The President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies* (Middlebury, Vermont: The Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1979), pp. 24-29.

ISSUE 4: New Developments

This issue is closely related to the preceding, since it also suggests identification of performance levels. We should be exploring applications to the American language classroom of the so-called functional-notional syllabus recently developed in Europe. To a large extent, we have not dealt with teaching or testing functional uses of language on this side of the Atlantic. Teacher educators are now knowledgeable enough about the field to help language teachers study implications for curriculum design and assessment. We should study the effectiveness of the functional-notional approach in its European setting in order to assess its potential for our own language teaching context. (See especially Widdowson[33] and Munby[34]).

In a similar vein, new approaches to teaching language, such as Suggestopedia,[35] the "Silent Way,"[36] and Counseling Learning[37] may too often be dismissed as fads before they have been adequately studied. Means for assessing affective results of such programs do not exist, and what may be valid claims are either dismissed or accepted without adequate knowledge of their real or lasting results.

ISSUE 5: Global Education.

Despite the rise in favor of largely undefined 'global education' programs and emphasis on cross-cultural understanding, we are not very close to agreement on appropriate goals — and therefore not very close to being able to measure achievement of global objectives. We have not yet given full attention to the identification of those activities which can help to give students global understanding, since we are not sure of what is really involved. Before spending large sums of money to promote teaching towards unidentified goals, perhaps through spurious activities, there should be concentrated work by study groups from the social sciences and from speech-communication and language areas to identify rational, attainable objectives. This should be followed by the identification of those curricular areas which are best suited to deal with the specific objectives. Assessment is obviously crucial. We must first develop valid and reliable measures of global awareness, once its components have been identified. We must then measure its growth in careful studies. Once such instruments have been developed, effects of bilingual and bicultural education programs, FLES programs, and introductory language and culture courses may be more adequately evaluated. Without appropriate assessment procedures, the future of the global education movement is doubtful.

33. H. G. Widdowson, *Teaching Language as Communication* (London: Oxford University Press, 1978). See also the excellent D. A. Wilkins, *Notional Syllabuses* (London: Oxford University Press, 1976).

34. John Munby, *Communicative Syllabus Design: A Sociolinguistic Model for Defining the Content of Purpose-Specific Language Programmes* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

35. Georgi Lozanov, *Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy* (New York: Gordon and Breach, 1978). Especially interesting is "The Suggestopedic Foreign Language System," pp. 266-79.

36. Caleb Gattegno, *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way* (New York: Educational Solutions, 1972).

37. Charles A. Curran, *Counseling-Learning in Second Languages* (Apple River, IL: Apple River Press, 1976).

ISSUE 6: Politics of Change.

Teachers in general and language teachers in particular often lack adequate background in the politics of educational change. Communities and students may be readier than we assume to accept rationale for change, if it is based on realistic and accurate assessment results. The role of full disclosure of objectives and straightforward and valid assessment as public relations tools has been generally ignored in favor of more visible (but perhaps less lasting) language festivals, programs, dinners, and the like. There is room for both.

We may have to push not so much for higher student enrollments as for administrative and school board willingness to support programs with lower enrollments. Teachers need time to prepare adequately for their courses, and to undertake inservice work to bring their skills up to date. But first, there is need for an accurate reading of community opinion, so that recognized needs will form the rationale which guides the development of language curricula. Often our programs may be resisted because they are unresponsive to actual community needs.

The following example may seem extreme, but such situations are still to be found throughout the country. In a blue-collar community in which few students go to college, the only language taught is French, despite the fact that there is a large Hispanic population nearby. The ostensible goal of the French program is to "develop communication skills and promote intercultural understanding." French was chosen as the language to teach because one of the English teachers has a minor in French. The course follows a standard text series, tests and quizzes cover the grammar of the book, and students listen to tapes to memorize given dialogues. Unit examinations and final tests generally treat the grammar in written form. Students read some short stories, with difficulty, near the end of the first year. Few students sign up for the second year, which begins with an extensive grammar review based on 'diagnostic tests.' Few parents or students are really involved in the work of the classes, and when a budget cut is necessary, the French program is eliminated. The French teacher protests, but the school board, reflecting dominant community feelings, stands by its decision.

The same result would have been less likely if the school district, when considering offering a language, had conducted a survey of school parents and students to discover which language to offer. We will assume they might have chosen Spanish because of the proximity to the Hispanic population.

Survey results would have told the school planners what the rationale for the program should be, and would have identified some crucial goals. The results could have guided the preparation of the curriculum, and reduced the likelihood of program elimination because many people would have had a personal stake in its continuation.

ISSUE 7: Self-Evaluation.

We have not adequately studied the development of instruments for diagnosing language learning difficulties and for making placement decisions. Student self-evaluation may provide a key. Hampering such development is the fact that many teachers tend to distrust students, believing that they are not qualified to make decisions involving their own learning. But students can *learn* to make decisions based on self-assessment.

One immediate application of self-evaluation techniques, in addition to use of such instruments for assessment of language proficiency suggested earlier in this Report, is in the affective area, as well as in assessment of attainment of use of language for specific purposes. Students might be asked, for example, to check on a list those real-life language use activities which they feel they can handle; the list would include such activities as "I can express my reaction to embarrassment in French," or "I can tell my family that I would rather be alone tonight." The teacher may use similar lists to check out actual student performance in interviews or other face-to-face situations. In small classes, where students form a comfortable peer community, *peer* evaluation of a similar nature might also be considered.

Scenario 2: Ms. Banning

Let us now consider another scenario, this time one in which what we presently know about testing and evaluation is used to guide the foreign language teaching/learning program. It is obviously only one of a great number of possible scenarios, given money, expertise, and a willing teacher. Since one is unlikely to find it in operation now or in the next few years, we will call this 'the 1990 scenario.'

Ms. Banning[38] has taught French in the same school district, in a middle-income suburb, for seven years. She is in a senior high school which has students in grades nine through twelve. Students in the district enter one of two senior high schools from five junior high schools (grades seven and eight) and two middle schools (grades six through eight). Record keeping is done district-wide using time-sharing facilities of a state-

38. A third alternative has been suggested, (the 'flip-side' of a strong technologically based classroom): a 'human scenario' in which money is spent to hire enough teachers to provide very small class groups. In this scenario, formal testing procedures would be infrequently necessary, since informal peer relationships permit accurate assessment of each student's progress. The teacher can, for example, record case studies to use for records and reports to parents. Students can be helped to use self-evaluation and would do so naturally. Since the informal atmosphere encourages full participation of each student, communicative activities are most prevalent. In a sense, this is the situation today in some advanced classes which have fewer than ten students. The most important drawback would seem to be articulation.

wide computer network. From the moment students enter the language program, records are kept continuously. Thus, Ms. Banning can instantly retrieve each student's complete record in French, as can the student. In fact, she can find out which errors a student has made, and the contexts in which they were made. She can see the amount of time students need to complete a given set of objectives, and the kind of 'branching,' or supplementary drill activities they used to achieve success.

Ms. Banning has identified rationales and goals for the program. Objectives relate to situations in which language is to be used (e.g., "The student will tell her friend that she is having a party and invites them to come."), as well as to linguistic goals. The student's record indicates which objectives have been met and the activities completed by the student in meeting them. She can thus observe directly a student's rate of learning and diagnose learning problems. Results of learning-style profiles, repeated annually, are available for all students, and are checked against the way they worked through the materials.

Since there is district-wide coordination by the language teachers, it is possible for each student to work continuously, without articulation difficulties, for the attainment of a single, unified, body of objectives, regardless of the particular school attended within the district. With Ms. Banning or alone, students can select objectives which match personal interests and abilities, and request at any time quiz items for that specific objective; they may even get alternative quizzes when they need to retake one. Students may move among learning groups according to their progress; they may work alone if they wish, and with other students when appropriate, as when preparing to meet communication objectives.

Ms. Banning's work consists largely of meeting with students individually or in groups, and providing materials and alternate ways for students to find materials themselves to practice the language. She also teaches oral communication skills; one corner of the classroom contains a small stage where students may be frequently seen acting or performing. Performances are videotaped and shared with other groups at convenient 'group' times, often in the first ten minutes of the class period. Generally, Ms. Banning plans to spend about one-fourth of the class period working with one of the special interest groups, in which students at a variety of achievement levels meet *topical* objectives. Topical groups may work from two to six or more weeks on a topic of special interest. Such groups are 'fluid,' with students sometimes moving among groups which are related. Within the group, she helps students choose learning activities which are appropriate for their achievement levels and learning style profiles.

Reports to parents are given by the computer in terms of progress toward specific objectives. Ms. Banning adds study suggestions and personal comments to the printout they receive. Parents are frequently involved in French classwork. Because of the open atmosphere, they feel free to come as observers or aides whenever they wish. Frequent visitors are included in Ms. Banning's planning and enjoy the opportunity to see their children in another setting.

Ms. Banning videotapes one full class period each week; she views the videotape herself and critiques her work as she interacts with individuals and with groups of students in the classroom. She critiques some of the tapes with the language chairperson, who gives additional feedback, and she frequently views her tapes with other language teachers in the district in an ongoing teaching seminar.

The central computer records test statistics: distributions, ranks of students, and item analysis. These are instantly available for program evaluation and norm-referenced decisions; since records are kept for the entire district, there is a larger statistical base than would be possible with single school or single class records. Ms. Banning is looking forward to the time when all French programs in the state will be built into the system.

Her classroom is attractive and lively. A small group of students practices writing on the blackboards; each student wears a small headset and is trying to write out a telephone message as it is dictated by another student nearby. The floor is carpeted and comfortable chair and table groupings are about half occupied. Several minicomputers are at one side of the room for drill activities; usually several students are using the many exciting programs from which they may choose through the time-sharing network. Cultural minidramas using French scenes drawn on the monitor amuse two students, who discuss available options and agree on responses, for which the computer gives immediate feedback. Students may test their listening comprehension by first observing a group of French speakers interacting on the screen and then answering comprehension questions. They can also respond to native speakers orally and match their production electronically with native voiceprints. They may also practice pronunciation of difficult sounds and intonation patterns by means of these comparisons.

Once a week students complete a self-evaluation grid; they can compare this to previous grids as they progress throughout their language study.

The 1990 scenario is not so wildly futuristic, after all. It can be attained if the language profession devotes itself to action leading to improvement in the assessment situation through knowledge which it already has and by using technologies which stand ready to use. Language test development and standardization, identification of proficiency levels attainable by students, development of teacher education programs which treat assessment more comprehensively, and greater attention by textbook and materials publishers to testing components could result in better language programs at every level. It is imperative that we follow through.

Editor's note: Because the author bases some of his assertions on personal experience with professional associations, an indication of his activities with them is appropriate. Past service included being president and director of a *state* organization (Washington Association of Foreign Language Teachers), director of a *regional* body (Pacific Northwest Council on Foreign Languages), and member of the board of a *national* group (American Council on German Studies). Current duties include service as a director of one *regional* (Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) and of two *national* associations: as editor of *The Modern Language Journal* he serves on the board of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations; twice elected national secretary of the American Association of Teachers of German, he has been a member of its executive council since 1975 and has represented AATG at meetings of the Joint National Committee for Languages. He remains editor of the *ACTFL Annual Bibliography of Books and Articles on Pedagogy in Foreign Languages*, a post he has held since 1974. T.H.G.

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The American Language Association: Toward New Strength, Visibility, and Effectiveness as a Profession

Introduction

The Chairman of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages has asked me to prepare a paper concerning ways and means to instill "new strength, visibility, and effectiveness into the organizational structure of the American foreign language teaching profession." Because the topic has been a professional concern for some time, I approach it with eagerness.[1] However, it also raises in me a certain degree of apprehension since the points made below can be easily misinterpreted. Moreover, knowing in advance that considerable resistance to the focal point of my remarks can be expected, it is appropriate to stress more emphatically at this point that my comments are *in no way* to be understood as criticism of the people who serve the associations or of the individual organizations themselves. My target is the *structure* of our profession as reflected in the great number of associations, their consequent duplication of services, resulting waste of resources and effort, and their lack of visibility and meaningful influence.

The issues we face as we enter the ninth decade of the century have been with us entirely too long. We need not document the well-known fact that our professional meetings, journals, and newsletters are filled to overflowing with discouraging reports of constantly declining enrollments; less than even marginal federal and state support for language study; employment problems for language teachers on all levels; reports of the virtual disappearance of positions for foreign language coordinators and supervisors on district and state levels; repeated failures of attempts at articulation; lack of visibility for our programs and seeming indifference toward knowledge of other languages and cultures on the part of the vast majority of potential students and the American public. My point is clear: we cannot hope to address these issues in a meaningful manner until we solve one basic problem — the anachronistic structure of our professional associations, a structure that has outlived its usefulness and must be replaced by a single professional association for teachers of all foreign languages on all levels of instruction. I therefore propose the establishment of the *American Language*

1. This text is based on an unpublished presentation given at the ADFL Seminar East, Pennsylvania State University — Ogontz Campus, June 1977.

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Association. For maximum effectiveness, this association must *assimilate* all existing national, regional, and state organizations for foreign language teachers. *I do not propose the creation of an association which will compete for members against those which presently exist!* Such a body would serve only to compound our present organizational dilemma. Rather, my plea is for individual teachers and for executive council members of our present organizations to recognize the compelling economic, political, and professional reasons for unification, and to move expeditiously to make this unification a reality. I am not advocating an alliance or a confederation; we all know they have failed in the past. What I do propose is a *merger* of all existing associations under a totally new name. The time has come to end the separatist policies of competition and self-determination exercised by the various associations existing today!

The following pages will be devoted to: (1) discussing specific reasons why our present professional structure is inadequate to our needs; (2) presenting an initial working outline for the structure and functions of the proposed American Language Association; and (3) making recommendations for action.

Inadequacy of Present Professional Structure

Whatever we might think, individually or collectively, that our present associations are *not*, we should be certain that we have at least a basic grasp of what they *are* before we continue.[2] All were formed for the purpose of providing quality services for foreign language teachers. Most often these services consist of publications and annual meetings, though each has other programs as well. Each in its own way, these associations aspire to identify and meet the goals of the profession, strive to keep their constituencies abreast of important opportunities and developments, and work to improve both professional performance and image. They are generally short of funds and, as a result, unable to implement a variety of worthy ideas and programs. Some pay no salary to their executive director (AATSEEL), others pay only half-time (AATF, AATSP), and still others pay for a full-time manager (AATG, ACTFL, MLA). These leaders are normally beleaguered, often frustrated by limitations over which they and their employers have little control, and are always overworked.

The result of this particular structure is a kind of semi-controlled chaos; it has been part of our professional lives throughout most of this century. Robert Roeming, a former editor of *The Modern Language Journal*, once likened our situation to that of a "loosely constructed professional raft carried along by the stream."[3]

We have failed to recognize that our political configuration does not need to be a carbon copy of our disciplinary structure. The result of this failure is a badly divided profession, one in which the constituencies either overlap or are seriously isolated from one

2. An index to major national associations in foreign languages is available in Edith K. Allouche & Gerard L. Ervin, "Expanding the Options: Curricula in Many Languages," *An Integrative Approach to Foreign Language Teaching: Choosing Among the Options*, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1976), pp. 283-87; see also Sophia Behrens, *Directory of Foreign Language Service Organizations* (Arlington, VA: CAL/ERIC, 1978).

3. Robert F. Roeming, "Traditional," *Modern Language Journal*, 48(1964), p. 97.

another. They produce divided loyalties, unnecessary competition for available members or resources, and on occasion even outright hostility. Indeed, communication among individual associations is a major problem.

Not one of our present professional associations can or does represent or speak for all of us. The Modern Language Association (MLA) draws its strength primarily from college and university teachers of literature, and excludes, in name and in its services, those who teach classical languages and literatures. Dedicated primarily to the expansion of knowledge through literary research and scholarship, it has not attempted sustained leadership in foreign language pedagogy and is virtually without appeal for public school teachers of languages. Colleagues in applied linguistics deserted it years ago. The executive director of the MLA is usually drawn from the ranks of English professors, which is quite understandable, since the latest membership data available (1978) indicate that only slightly over one-third (36%) of its membership is in foreign languages.[4] While the Modern Language Association has in fact done much to encourage and foster foreign language study (e.g., the MLA Foreign Language Program; formation of the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages; creation of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages; co-development of the National Language Program for the 1970's; and, most recently, co-sponsorship of the five MLA/ACLS Task Forces[5]), its orientation — patently incorrect in my opinion — has historically been that whatever is good for college and university foreign language departments may be generalized to *all* foreign language teachers.[6]

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), in contrast to the MLA, attempts to address itself to the needs of foreign language teachers on all levels and of all languages. But its heavy emphasis on pedagogical concerns and lack of attention to matters of literary interpretation have combined to stifle interest in ACTFL membership among college teachers of foreign literatures.

Individual AAT groups (such as the American Association of Teachers of German) are, as their names indicate, divided by language. While they do strive with varying degrees of success to take care of the needs of teachers on all levels, and of all specialties, and while they are normally extended throughout the country via either state chapters (AATG) or regions (AATF), their services are limited to teachers (and sometimes students) of a particular language.

On the regional level we find essentially the same disjointed picture. While the Modern Language Association collaborates with regional affiliates (SAMLA, RMMLA, NEMLA, etc.), most of our other national associations do not. The image projected is therefore one of a highly diverse group of independent associations, each of

4. Data courtesy of Richard I. Brod, Coordinator, Association of Departments of Foreign Languages (MLA).

5. The reports of the Task Forces are available as follows: "Report of Task Force on the Commonly Taught Languages," *ADFL Bulletin,* 10, i(1978), pp. 1-7; "Report of the Task Force on the Less Commonly Taught Languages," *ADFL Bulletin,* 10, i(1978), pp. 7-11; "Report of the Task Force on Institutional Language Policy," *ADFL Bulletin,* 10, ii(1978), pp. 1-11; "Report of the Task Force on Public Awareness," *ADFL Bulletin,* 10, iii(1979), pp. 1-3; "Report of the Task Force on Government Relations," *ADFL Bulletin,* 10, iv(1979), pp. 1-4.

6. This belief was stated clearly by William D. Schaefer, then Executive Director of the MLA: "College and university departments are the key to the future . . ." *ADFL Bulletin,* 4, i(1979), p. 18.

which has its own identity, administrative structure, and services (usually an annual meeting and a publication). These organizations include the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Pacific Northwest Council on Foreign Languages, and the Southern Conference on Language Teaching. A glance at the annual meeting program of each of these organizations reveals that all except PNCFL (which attempts to strike a balance between literary and pedagogical offerings) are heavily oriented toward foreign language pedagogy and methodology.

Finally, each state normally has its own association of foreign language teachers. Size, types of services, and effectiveness vary widely depending on the commitment of an association's officers and on the availability of resources. Most have a newsletter or journal and sponsor at least one meeting annually; many work closely with the office of the state supervisor or coordinator of foreign languages, where such an office still exists. Some states, such as California, have two or more state organizations.

A major effect of this plethora of professional organizations is a seriously weakened professional voice. None of our professional associations can speak for all of us; neither friend nor foe can be met with the strength, the political clout, of a united profession.

Our present structure has other, equally debilitating disadvantages. First, we are organized — both profession-wide and within individual associations — to enhance the world of specialists. The 'rank and file' classroom teachers, most of them generalists, have at best a barely audible voice. I cannot suppress the suspicion that the entrenched power structure of the present associations appears reluctant to inform itself of the needs and desires of classroom teachers. Speculation about the reasons for this reluctance might suggest the following:

(1) So limited is their money and so great the demand for it, most of our associations would have to budget a large amount of funds several years in advance in order to conduct a meaningful survey of members' interests and needs.
(2) A survey of the membership might reveal that teachers actually want benefits and services which differ considerably from present meetings and publications.
(3) The power structure is dominated largely by faculty members from the nation's colleges and universities, individuals who depend on the reading and publication of papers for both their own intellectual well-being and for appropriate promotions and raises from their home institutions.

At any rate, with the notable and laudable exceptions of ACTFL's "Concerns of the Profession" sessions at annual meetings, and the similar session or seminar evaluation sheets used at some national and regional conferences, I can recall no time in the last decade when any of the associations to which I personally belong have requested a formal opinion from members concerning all or even some aspects of their total services and programs. It should be a matter of great importance for our associations to know what their members want and expect of them. Since our present organizations have not determined this, it is both fair and accurate to charge that *they operate primarily without a truly participatory consensus of their memberships.*

Second, our present structure actually reinforces division by language, level, region, and specialty. Consequently, those contingents with the fewest actual and potential members are frequently left out or overlooked completely. Here, I think specifically of foreign language teachers employed in community colleges. So great is their need for a

forum and so strong their feeling of isolation, that one of their leaders has reluctantly gone on record in favor of still another *competing* organization: "I realize," Louise Allen writes, "that this is a strikingly poor time [1977] to appear to advocate the formation of new organizations or the founding of new journals, but I must insist that something needs to be done to bring together people whose interests are akin to but different from those of their colleagues at other kinds of institutions."[7] To my knowledge, only the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages (ADFL) has devoted any significant attention in recent years to problems of foreign language teachers in community colleges.

Third, our lack of a unified professional structure leaves us in a poor position to deal with units of government, from local through national. We have been without adequate means of halting the alarming attrition among state and district foreign language coordinators and supervisors, not to speak of actual teaching positions. As Harry Reinert wrote to C. Edward Scebold several years ago: "The goals of a unified professional structure would include, but not be limited to . . . resolute opposition to all attempts to weaken education by groups and individuals who attack foreign language programs, for whatever reason. . . ."[8]

Fourth, and supremely ironic for people who are in the business of communication, our present professional structure actually impedes the collection and dissemination of information. Indeed, *we even lack precise figures on the number of foreign language teachers in the United States!* Moreover, anyone wanting to contact all of them, for whatever reason, would have to obtain a minimum of 69 lists from associations (fifty-three state, four regional, and twelve national *excluding* TESOL and bilingual education groups) and attempt to purchase a list from each state superintendent's office as well, since many teachers apparently do not bother to join even their present state foreign language organization. Communicating with us is a cumbersome business; that, in turn, causes still another problem.

Fifth, the present structure of our profession enhances teacher apathy and encourages loss of initiative. Since we do not know how many of us there are, we have no way of knowing what percentage of potential members actually belongs to the various associations or attends the regional conferences. I suspect, however, that actual membership does not surpass fifty percent of potential (a most pathetic figure), a much more generous guess than that of E. R. Mulvihill, who put the number at *fifteen* percent,[9] and Gary L. Harris and Robert J. Elkins, who note that only 30.7% of job applicants to West Virginia University in 1973 belonged to their respective AAT group and that only 3.7% belonged to ACTFL![10] C. Edward Scebold, ACTFL Executive Director, estimates that the organization still has only about fifteen percent of its potential membership. Exactly why foreign language teachers have such a dismal record concerning membership in their professional associations is a matter of conjecture.

7. Louise H. Allen, *Fay ce que vouldras:* The Possible (?) Dream," *ADFL Bulletin,* 8, iii(1977), p. 3.

8. Cited in C. Edward Scebold, "The Future of Professional Associations," *Responding to New Realities,* ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1974), p. 385.

9. "And What Next?" *ADFL Bulletin,* 4, iii(1973), p. 15.

10. "Profile of a Job Applicant in Foreign Languages," *ADFL Bulletin,* 6, ii(1974), p. 25.

However, contributing factors might be:

(1) associations themselves are not addressing real needs of teachers who, in turn, choose to remain non-members;

(2) since teachers are asked to join so many organizations, many rebel or even become confused and choose to support very few or even none. Membership in the appropriate AAT organizations becomes especially expensive for those who teach more than one language.

Sixth, our present professional structure is obviously inefficient. Because of low finances, organizations are forced to rely — far too heavily — on volunteer labor. That labor is provided by a small core of reliable and hyperactive professionals; but even they have only so much time to give. Joint ventures of two or more associations, undertaken to save time or money, are dependent upon a *continuing* spirit of cooperation and are thus of nominal value. Since officers in associations change every one to two years, sustained cooperation cannot be guaranteed.

Seventh, the present structure of the profession is highly duplicative, therefore horrendously expensive and wasteful. The fact that each association presently has its own administrative staff, overhead expenses, executive council, publications, conferences, and special services to members results in an expenditure of funds and a senseless duplication of effort which no profession can justify or condone. The chief executives of the AATSP and of ACTFL are in print as being in agreement with this contention.[11]

The present structure is also costly in less obvious ways. Because most of our associations lead a hand-to-mouth financial existence, they are constantly on the alert for grant proposals that could have some net fiscal value. They frequently compete *against* each other for funds available from various granting agencies, a kind of competition which is usually doomed to failure from the outset. A granting agency is unlikely to waste its resources by paying administrative or other costs for each of three associations to determine for example, the number of American high school students enrolled in French, German, and Spanish classes in a given year when it could offer support to one organization to take such a poll involving *all* languages taught in the nation's schools in the same period. Moreover, common sense tells us that school principals are more likely to respond to one questionnaire from one association — especially one as large as the proposed ALA could be — than to three survey instruments from as many organizations. In addition, it stands to reason that our present professional associations, each with its own publications, conferences, and services, compete against one another in other, equally debilitating ways for advertisers, speakers, and conference dates and exhibitors — to name but a few.

The money we lose in this manner and the effort which we expend needlessly in competition *against* one another is matched only by:

(1) the losses we suffer by holding small individual national meetings (some of the annual meetings of our *national* organizations draw only 350-500 members), where a very large conference would enable substantial reductions in the price of hotel rooms and even charter flights to the meeting site;

11. See C. Edward Scebold (note 8 above); also Richard B. Klein, "Whither Foreign Language Associations?" *ADFL Bulletin*, 9, iii(1978), pp. 34-36.

(2) our insistence on negotiating individual contracts for our publications, where cooperative ventures would doubtless reduce overhead considerably;

(3) our expenses for meetings of the executive council of each organization.

The money and effort we waste on such competition would be more wisely spent on matters of significance such as funding for research and program development of direct benefit to the profession itself; for individual or team research projects in literature, pedagogy, and curriculum and program development; for support of intensive advertising and other public relations efforts which advocate language study to and for the American public; and for grants to local foreign language teachers and programs for whatever matters are most important to them. Any of these activities would, when implemented and carried out by a strong profession, improve what associations offer to members so that increasing numbers of teachers might well feel much more highly motivated than they do at present to join and to participate.

Eighth, and directly related to the foregoing, our present professional structure obstructs our visibility to the American public and inhibits effective cooperation with both associations of other disciplines and with international language organizations. We can agree, I think, that mounting a sustained publicity effort on behalf of foreign language study is extremely difficult from headquarters offices sprinkled around the nation: Columbus, Ohio (AATA); Champaign-Urbana, Illinois (AATF); Cherry Hill, New Jersey (AATG); New Brunswick, New Jersey (AATI); Tucson, Arizona (AATSEEL); Worcester, Massachusetts (AATSP); Oxford, Ohio (ACL); Baltimore, Maryland (ACTR); Houston, Texas (ACTUAL); New York City (ACTFL, MLA); Ann Arbor, Michigan (AATJ); South Orange, New Jersey (CLTA). It is not only difficult for us to sell the notion of foreign language study from such a fractured base, it is equally difficult for professional associations not in foreign languages to contact us. To which of the above should they write? Is what they might want of us important enough (to them!) to contact all of the above? *Can they as outsiders even be expected to be aware of the existence of so many distinct organizations?* And, as if that were not enough, our structure is so fragmented that even we do not know many of our own associations or the names of the people who administer them. An example drawn from my personal experience: at a large regional meeting last year, a state foreign language newsletter editor who had been in office for quite some time identified one of our national leaders (an executive secretary of one of our comprehensive national organizations) and could not remember which association he represented! One wonders how many beneficial ideas are lost because the profession cannot stay in touch with itself. In 1974, Stephen Levy wrote that the number of our organizations has ". . . thwarted any potential clout that a strong national organization of foreign language teachers of all languages at all levels could have in improving the image and resuscitating the interest in foreign language study. Unity of action can only be achieved by a unified profession."[12] Five years later, it was obvious to Richard Brod at least that we had not made much progress:

> Foreign language education is still a long way from achieving the acceptance and visibility in American society that we would like it to have. We need to win en-

12. "The Realities Facing the Profession," *Responding to New Realities,* ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis (note 8 above), p. 23.

> thusiastic, not grudging, support from all segments of society — not merely from educators and administrators, but also from school boards, students, community organizations, business leaders, internationalists of all kinds, and the media. . . . How can we set about winning the support that we need? I have no simple answer to this question. I know only that we will ultimately succeed only if we learn to act with a better sense of professionalism, a stronger sense of purpose, and a clearer understanding of our role in society than we have had until now.[13]

Ninth, as Brod's words imply, the present structure prohibits a unified plan for our own professional development. In 1971 a working committee of the Northeast Conference delivered a scathing report on our status as a profession.[14] "We can only conclude," the authors note, "that despite the professionalism of large numbers of individual foreign-language teachers, our foreign-language teaching 'profession' is an 'amateur profession' rather than truly a profession" (p. 29). The authors of that Report link problems of our own development directly to a lack of professional *unity*. They go on to state that the profession can hardly attain full status until it:

> (1) finds an orientation which guarantees for it an enduring and relatively stable place in the educational community;
> (2) reaches substantial agreement on purposes and goals;
> (3) systematizes its specialized knowledge and communicates rapidly new knowledge;
> (4) sets standards of preparation and performance for membership and accepts or rejects candidates on their merits;
> (5) eliminates incompetents;
> (6) commands full-time activity on the part of its members as well as a commitment to continuing self-renewal and improvement;
> (7) devises a plan for recognizing and rewarding various levels of attainment;
> (8) achieves a functional and unified organization (p. 29).

Despite the numerous qualities of the Report just cited, and despite the nobility of its intent, it falls short of expectations for two reasons. In the first place, the unified organization which it goes on to advocate is one that was already in existence (ACTFL), though at the time still viewed with some hostility by the AAT's. As such,the plan for unification proposed by the authors of that Report did not require an equal sacrifice of individual associations' identities for the common good. In the second place, the Report does not address the fact that teachers of foreign literatures are also part of this profession; ignoring them and their interests neither changes the fact that they exist nor enhances the authors' goal of a unified profession.

Finally, our present professional structure does us all a disservice by ignoring certain basic tenets of American culture. It is confusing at best that we who teach students about other cultures have apparently not taken sufficient time to examine our own. The first American value that we violate is that of *unity*, a concept that is with us in the

13. Richard I. Brod, "Options and Opportunities: New Directions in Foreign Language Curricula," *ADFL Bulletin*, 10, iv(1979), p. 18.

14. James R. Powers et al., "Professional Responsibilities," *Leadership for Continuing Development*, ed. James W. Dodge, Northeast Conference Reports (New York: The Conference, 1971), pp. 15-51.

name of the nation, on every piece of its money (*E Pluribus Unum*) as reflected on the national seal, and a concept which has been advocated throughout our history in such utterances as Benjamin Franklin's remark to John Hancock at the signing of the Declaration of Independence ("We must indeed all hang together, or, most assuredly, we shall all hang separately"); the refrain of John Dickinson's "Liberty Song" ("Then join in hand brave Americans all / By uniting we stand, by dividing we fall"); Abraham Lincoln's actions and words ("A house divided against itself cannot stand").

Americans also respect self-motivation and the abundant use of common sense, especially when both are employed to win whatever battle needs to be fought, whatever problem seeks solution. As a nation, our collective respect is evoked most often by positive superlatives: the biggest, the richest, the most powerful, etc. We do have a tendency to respect size, and size is clearly something for which the foreign language teaching profession has a potential, but one for which it has not worked in a meaningful manner to date.

Still, calls for and attempts to achieve unity are nothing new to this profession. However, they have failed in each instance because unity was perceived as a working coalition or confederation of existing associations rather than as a total merger.[15] While I do not seek to dampen in any way the current spirit of mutual concern and cooperation reflected on our latest effort, I suspect that the Joint National Committee for Languages (JNCL) will eventually fail for the same reasons. Its successes to date have been due to

(1) the willingness of its member associations (AAT's, ACTFL, ADFL/MLA, and more recently, others) to contribute money to its functions; and,
(2) to donate the time of their paid staffs and elected officers; and,
(3) to follow up on activities or programs of mutual concern.

Had it not been for the presence of the JNCL, the profession would doubtless have had a much more difficult time than was actually the case preparing unified testimony for the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. The fact remains, however, that the JNCL would not have to exist, that this profession would not need to be dependent on a willingness to cooperate among organizations, if it were unified under one banner from the outset.

15. For a capsule history of these attempts, see Powers et al., pp. 17-21. Others who have advocated confederation or mutual efforts of present associations abound. See, for example, in addition to those already cited in this essay, C. F. Kayser, "The Federation and the Proposed Modern Language Journal," *Modern Language Journal,* 1(1916), pp. 1-9; rpt. *Modern Language Journal* 60(1976), pp. 423-28; Renée Merker, "For the Improvement of Modern Language Study," *Modern Language Journal,* 41(1957), pp. 154-55; Dale L. Lange and Charles J. James, "Foreign Language Education: A Reappraisal," *Foreign Language Education: A Reappraisal,* ed. Lange and James (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1972), pp. 377-91; Eugene F. Timpe, "Accreditation and the Association," *ADFL Bulletin,* 9, ii(1977), pp. 1-3; and Beverly M. Enwall, "Responding to Today's Issues," *The Language Connection: From the Classroom to the World,* ed. June K. Phillips, (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1977), esp. pp. 131-56.

The Proposed American Language Association

The inordinately large number of organizations available to American foreign language teachers indicates clearly that we perceive professional associations to be a necessity. What I fail to comprehend is why we should continue to prefer the inherent weakness of our present situation to the obvious strength of a unified professional structure.

There is no room for doubt: the need for an organization like the American Language Association is clear, and its potential is considerable. If the members of the present AAT organizations were to transfer to the ALA when unification becomes reality, the proposed association would have an immediate potential membership of between 35,000 and 40,000.[16] That figure *excludes* the current membership totals of the Modern Language Association, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, TESOL and bilingual education groups, and state foreign language associations. It also *excludes* attendance totals of the regional conferences, most of which are not membership organizations in the strict sense of the term.

If I am correct in assuming that all of the present associations combined attract less than 50% of potential members, then the American Language Association could conceivably grow to a strength of 80,000 to 85,000 members. This Report is written during depressed times for foreign language teachers. When the impact of the ALA is felt and foreign language study is again an integral part of our educational process, total membership could easily surpass 150,000.

Recommendations for Action

No individual with less talent than Thomas Jefferson had should succumb to the temptation of attempting to draft a constitution or even a comprehensive plan for an association which does not exist. I do wish, however, to provide some ideas for consideration and deliberation during discussions of the arduous process of actively seeking unification.

The American Language Association must be a single unified organization which is created by the merger of all existing foreign language professional associations and conferences. Even though that point has been made repeatedly, both implicitly and explicitly, it bears repeating. A loose confederation or for that matter even a tightly-knit one, cannot be tolerated because it is essentially unreliable, encourages and allows needless duplication of services, wastes available resources, and leaves this profession without a strong voice in matters which concern it.

16. See Allouche and Ervin, pp. 283-87 and Behrens. The estimated membership includes the combined totals of those who belong to AATA, AATF, AATG, AATI, AATSEEL, AATSP, ACL, ACTUAL, ATJ, and CLTA.

For the sake of unity, as a reflection of it, and to enhance visibility, the name of the American Language Association (or whatever it might be called) should be utilized on the national, regional, and state levels. The implications of merger on the national level are clear. In order to be effective and visible, however, an organization such as the ALA must recognize the importance of the current regional conferences and state associations. As I envision the composition of the ALA, these would still exist, but they would neither be independent nor would their names be exactly the same on the regional level. They should become: the American Language Association — Northeast Conference; the American Language Association — Central States Conference; the American Language Association — Pacific Conference; the American Language Association — Southern Conference. Similarly, the current state associations should become chapters of the ALA: the American Language Association — New York Chapter, Virginia Chapter, Oregon Chapter, etc. The proposed structure would facilitate communication from local to national offices, from national offices to the conferences, to the chapters, and to the public. Neither other associations nor individuals who wish to join would have difficulty determining the correct address or association. There would be only one.

In order to facilitate rapid collection and dissemination of information important to the profession and to begin the process of exercising the influence which accrues to a united profession, the American Language Association must be located in — or within the immediate vicinity of — the nation's capital. Indeed, this professional association should be located in the American Language Association building there. The proposed location is close to those sources of information and funding which the profession at large is only beginning to comprehend: the Department of Education, National Endowment for the Humanities, National Science Foundation (for its Linguistics Program), the Congress, and other national offices.

Member organizations of the present Joint National Committee for Languages are currently very concerned about appropriate ways and means to facilitate action on the recommendations of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. All realize the necessity for a lobby located in Washington, but they are unable to agree on the amount of money from individual associations to be collected and utilized for that purpose. While it will, of course, be some time before we realize fully either the result of inaction or the success of a lobbying effort, the advantages of a unified organization, on location and representing our professional interests, cannot be ignored.

The American Language Association must have an organizational and administrative structure which will:

(1) reflect the changing needs of the profession;
(2) set standards of performance for itself and for those who would gain entry to it;[17] and
(3) be comprehensible to its members.

17. This point is reflected already in the 1971 *Northeast Conference Reports*, (note 14 above), p. 29.

As Frank Ryder put it in another context recently, we must have a professional association which reflects all aspects of professional life.[18]

More specifically, the American Language Association must:

- be willing, as a means of attracting present associations to the proposed merger, to assume any outstanding debts of those associations at the time of merger; conversely, to enable language-specific endowment and trust funds (such as that maintained by AATF) to be retained specifically for use by that language within the ALA itself;
- be governed by a constitution which preserves the integrity of all organizations, languages, levels, and specialty groups which become part of it, while allowing none to feel disenfranchised and permitting none to gain dominance;
- be structured in such a way as to enhance the pursuit of what its members do best; namely, teaching and conducting literary, linguistic, cultural, and pedagogical research, while other concerns are handled by professional publicists, lobbyists, and fund raisers who are hired by the organization;
- preserve, as a minimum, the diversity (e.g., journals, bibliographies, monographs, reviews, books, newsletters, etc.) of the publication programs offered by our present associations, and supplement them with new publications as the need arises;
- provide for an adequate system of defense, which will provide the development of strong ties with other curricular groups and professional educational and scholarly associations (e.g., AAAH, AAUP, ACD, ACE, ACTE, NCSS, NEA, and others); the development of liaisons with international foreign language organizations (FIPLV, IDV, etc.); the training of a core of carefully selected foreign language specialists who can be sent immediately to a given school district or institution to provide advice on self-preservation when foreign language programs and teachers' jobs are threatened;
- recognize that the best defense is an unusually strong offense, one which, via specialists hired or trained for that purpose, will begin taking a unified and well planned foreign language "message" to the American public, state and local school officials, and to other policymaking bodies in the United States;
- realize that it needs to sponsor research both about itself (e.g., number and composite profile of foreign language teachers in the nation; methods, materials, teaching loads of individual foreign language teachers) and for its members (e.g., optimal class size for teaching foreign languages; specific benefits which accrue to those who study foreign languages and to few, if any, others; a meaningful articulation program; establishment of learning objectives and competencies by level of language studied, etc.);
- make possible both institutional memberships and an affiliated national organization of students of foreign languages;
- provide an employment service for members which goes beyond the excellent program of this nature already established by the Modern Language Association;

18. Frank G. Ryder, "The Organizational Structure of the Profession," *German Studies in the United States: Assessment and Outlook*, ed. Walter F. W. Lohnes & Valters Nollendorfs (Madison, WI: Univ. of Wisconsin Press, 1976), p. 262.

with the state chapters gathering information, the employment service suggested here would encompass vacancies at all levels in the schools, community colleges, and colleges and universities; non-academic job listings both for teachers and students of foreign languages; and constant effort to convince districts and institutions without language programs, as well as business and industry in which people with a language background could be utilized, but are not, why they would be beneficial.

I am confident that many readers will believe that the organization outlined to this point is but a fantasy, a passing idea which cannot be achieved given the present political configuration of the profession. But again I would draw an American parallel: those representatives of the thirteen colonies who came together to draft a document which would declare them independent of a particular opponent and to write a constitution which would have them be united while protecting individual rights. Our situation as foreign language teachers is not dissimilar. If representatives of thirteen colonies could draft such a document in the face of adversity, so too can we. We, like they, suffer from a particular enemy: theirs was represented in the figure of a king; ours, also embodied in a single concept, is equally threatening: the concrete reality of a constant erosion of our numbers to a point where, if allowed to continue unabated, extinction could become a distinct possibility.

If we agree that the American Language Association can be more than a dream, then we must be willing to do two things: 1) pay for it; 2) work toward it.

Concerning dues for the American Language Association, I propose $50 per year for purposes of discussion. That figure actually represents a *decrease* from what many of us now pay. In my own case, dues relevant to this argument are currently (1980) as follows:

MLA	$ 55 per year
ACTFL	25
AATG	15
Central States Attendance	15
Ohio MLTA	7
TOTAL	$117 per year

That sum amounts to approximately $9.75 per month. If we take into account that many of our current number do not now belong to the MLA, the total figure would be about $55 per annum less, but would still amount to $12 per year more than the dues I am proposing for the American Language Association. Moreover, if my membership projections are accurate, they would generate the following sums from dues alone (at $50 per annum):

Members	Funds from dues
40,000	$2,000,000
60,000	3,000,000
80,000	4,000,000
150,000	7,500,000

The most notable difference from our present situation reflected in the above figures is that we are talking in millions rather than thousands. And if we want the type of

organization and the kinds of services outlined above, then we must possess the strength and determination to make the notion of a unified profession a reality.

Active participation in the steps toward merger of our present professional associations can take a variety of forms. The most effective would be to talk about the prospects and potential benefits of a unified profession at every opportunity.

Individual teachers should identify and seek out, either by mail, telephone, or in person, members of the executive councils of their respective present organizations. These representatives should be told your wish for our associations to come together under a common name. Request your colleagues' support for this cause. Keep constantly in mind that *no present association will want to take the first step.*

Colleagues who currently serve on the executive council of one or more of our associations should seek debate about the notion of merger within their council. A good starting point would perhaps be to instruct the president and executive director to place an open discussion of merger on the agenda of the Joint National Committee for Languages. If our associations could begin there to draft a plan for merger, then a major step toward unification would be a reality.

Revolution, even to those who espouse it and even when a 'bloodless' variety is envisioned, can be a frightening word. It calls forth visions of extreme and prolonged hardships in order to effect change, to implement a new order in place of an anachronistic one. Revolution also normally erupts when no other alternative seems to exist. I am convinced that American foreign language teachers face just such a situation at the start of the ninth decade of this century. It is therefore a logical conclusion that the time for a particular kind of revolt, one against a professional structure which we created and which we have continued to nurture, is upon us. If we do not act soon to modify it, we will surely suffer the consequences of our inaction.

Only when merger has taken place can we say with satisfaction that we have new strength, visibility, and effectiveness as a profession.